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Curriculum Planning for the Surging College Enrollment

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Editorial

Prelude to Planning

A MOST unfortunate catch-phrase was coined a few years ago—"The Impending Tidal Wave of Students." It captured the attention of the public, told them that many more young people would soon be seeking college preparation. It also captured the public's emotional reactions. "Swamped," "desperate plight," "overcrowded," "inundation," "impending crisis" expressed typical response to the prospective doubling of college enrollments by 1970 or earlier.

Three million college students in 1957. Six million in 1970. The difference is not a tidal wave, a calamity, an overpowering burden. The difference is three million American young people, full of promise, one of the most fortunate bounties received by America since its founding. Equipped intellectually, socially and spiritually by higher education these sons and daughters of ours can make our present achievements seem puerile, can move civilization forward as much in ten years as we did in thirty. If they are a tidal wave, so were the petroleum reserves discovered in Texas and California a few decades ago.

Between 1910 and 1920 educators and pundits were in much discussion about who should go to high school. Somehow, the American people did not hear. They answered the question in typically American fashion—by sending everybody who wanted to go and many who did not want to. Maybe between 1955 and 1965 it will be interesting to speculate again, this time upon who should go to college. But, the odds are high that the American people will give the same answer—everybody who wants to go shall go. Whether what the students get when they enter is higher education, continuing education, technical education, post-high school education or what-have-you, relatively few people will care—so long as it is called college education and eventuates in a degree.

Educators must care, however. Planners must care. Actual and potential donors must care. Taxpayers must care. And caring, they must act before the fact.

Strangely enough, for once the primary actions needed are not financial ones. Although the chief change in college attendance will be quantitative (the most drastic estimates show only minor changes in the "ability" distribution of 1970 enrollees), the adjustments necessary to meet that change are qualitative.

As has been true for many years, the pay-off question is, "What shall happen to these young people while they are in college, and to all the rest of us because they were in college?" We shall need new ways of reaching old ends. We shall need some new ends.

This issue of EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP is devoted to an examination of ends and means for American higher education. Perhaps the best way to introduce its content is to ask the reader to ponder a few opinionated, epigrammatic propositions:

"Who should go?" might be better asked, "Who chooses to go and how intelligently does he choose?"

Success in college is related to I.Q. and T.Q. (Teaching Quality), but it seems really dependent upon M.Q.—the motivation quotient.

If our scheme for higher education ever becomes monolithic, we can expect a monolithic society. Each institution has the right to be different, and the obligation to respect differences. Even in the jungle of modern advertising, it is unethical to cast aspersions upon another's brand.

The imperatives for re-examining and redesigning the ends to be served by a multilithic scheme of higher education arise not from the surging enrollment but from the surging tides of twentieth century civilization.

Numbers are not necessarily a big bad wolf. Seventy-five percent of the colleges in the United States could double their enrollments and still be smaller than existent colleges of the same kind now doing excellent jobs.

The chief end of higher education is not to make man dependent upon teachers but independent of them.

The real hero of the next decade will be the man who convinces the majority of the faculty members of one single college that something phenomenal is going to happen to *them*.

Now is the time to rock the boat. The gentle breezes of complacency currently blowing over American college curricula are far more dangerous than a hurricane. We are making history, all right, the kind of history which historians in 2000 will likely begin, "Unfortunately . . ."

College at its best is a constructively educative environment. The teacher is a prime part of that environment. In the immediate future, he will become more and more rare and perhaps more precious. It is not necessarily true, however, that the educative environment which is college has to become less constructive because it is more sparsely settled with teachers. We have at our disposal means which can free the teacher from instructing, explaining, drilling, and many other components of his present job and turn him loose to *really* teach—that is, cause people to learn. We have also almost unlimited opportunity to add to the environment other educative influences and experiences. We have millions of young people whose educability, we are beginning to learn, is far beyond the ceilings which most of us accepted. What more could a man want as an opportunity for curriculum planning?

—L. D. HASKEW, *dean of the College of Education; Vice-President for Developmental Services, The University of Texas, Austin.*

REMINDER

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MARGARET LINDSEY

The College Teacher and the Surging Enrollments

In view of the increasing shortages in staff and facilities, college faculties should explore several promising approaches to the improvement of instruction.

CONFRONTING American higher education today are issues similar to those that faced other levels of the school at earlier periods in history. Most of these issues call for fundamental policy decisions though the tendency is now, as it was in the past when elementary and secondary schools dealt with these problems, to seek temporary or emergency solutions. An inclination to place priority upon physical facilities, administrative organization, and maintenance of traditional standards is present now in college and university education as it was only twenty years ago in secondary schools.

The basic question of policy is, "Should our society attempt to provide education beyond the high school for all youth who have a desire for it?" The remainder of this discussion is based on the assumption that our society can and should make the necessary opportunities for higher education available to all high school graduates who seek to continue their formal schooling. It is further assumed that a substantial increase in variety and types of institutions and programs is essential if the demands of youth are to be met. These assumptions imply a redefinition of purposes of higher education and a re-examination of curricular offerings, with probable expansion of both.

Larger numbers of students are graduating from high schools every year and the percent of graduates seeking education beyond the high school is on a steady increase. If there were any likelihood that either of these facts would not still be true in 1970, the accompanying problems might be viewed as temporary, but forecasts indicate both conditions will continue. Meanwhile entrance into college teaching as a career by those securing the doctor's degree has not kept pace with larger enrollments in undergraduate institutions.[1] Indeed, other demands in our society have drawn away from teaching not only recent doctoral candidates but many veteran college

[1] For discussion of basic issues confronting higher education today, see the following:

National Education Association, Association for Higher Education. *Current Issues in Higher Education,* 1955, 1956 and 1957. Washington: National Education Association.

National Education Association, Educational Policies Commission. *Higher Education in a Decade of Decision.* Washington: National Education Association, 1957.

American Council on Education. *Higher Education and the Society It Serves.* Washington: the Council, 1957.

Fund for the Advancement of Education. *Better Utilization of College Teaching Resources.* New York: the Fund, 1956.

Charles Hogarth. *Crisis in Higher Education.* Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1957.

Robert Hutchins. *Some Observations on American Higher Education.* London: Cambridge University Press, 1956.

teachers. Consequently, there exists now an imbalance in the supply and demand of college teachers, an imbalance that, it is predicted, will prevail for some years ahead.

Current opinions and practices relating to who should go to college, what kinds of higher education opportunities should be available, and how education beyond the high school should be supported are treated in other articles in this issue. Here we shall consider the problems of instruction brought about by increased enrollments in colleges and universities.

It has often been said that an institution cannot rise above the quality of its faculty. This is as true of the so-called "ivy-league" college as it is of the technical institute. It is as true in science as in health and physical education. Probably there is little disagreement on the importance of the college teacher as a determining factor in the quality of educational opportunity provided. But, what kinds of teachers and teaching contribute to quality in education? What is quality? Does it have to do with what a student learns and how he learns it or what a teacher knows and how he communicates it? Can quality in learning be maintained with the increasing number of students in college and a lack of corresponding increase in number of college teachers?

A well-known spokesman[2] on this latter question has stated his position thus: "Will we persist in keeping our classes small knowing that in so doing we will reduce the quality of instruction, or will we seek new ways of instruction? . . . Today the greatest teachers of the age might be filmed or kinescoped and made available to students everywhere."

Introducing a rebuttal to this position, another spokesman said: "He (Eurich) seems to have suggested as a substitute for a cliché of the past a cliché of the future: American education will soon connote a professor at one end of the coaxial cable and 5,000 students at the other. This is an electrifying and shocking idea."[3]

One obvious approach to the problem of staffing the nation's colleges is the recruitment, selection, preparation and placement of more teachers. Difficulties in this approach are compounded by such prevailing conditions as: inadequate financial rewards, inordinately heavy and diverse teaching responsibilities, and certain personnel policies relating to status. Even if the undesirable aspects of these conditions could be wiped out overnight, there would remain two other factors militating against making college teaching as attractive as it needs to be if an adequate supply of college instructors is to be secured. The first of these is tied to the whole manpower picture, with demands for more and more highly-trained people in more and more production and service occupations. Competition by different groups to secure able youth is accentuated by a range of social values and traditional conceptions related to prestige.

The second factor is the failure on the part of graduate universities to enhance

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[2] Alvin Eurich. "Better Instruction with Fewer Teachers." *Current Issues in Higher Education.* Washington: National Education Association, Association for Higher Education, 1956. p. 10.

[3] Warner Rice. "Efficient and Effective Teaching." *Current Issues in Higher Education.* Washington: National Education Association, Association for Higher Education, 1956. p. 17.

for the doctoral student a career of college teaching or to provide specialized preparation for this career. Current developments in this regard present a basis for some optimism, but much more needs to be done by graduate universities and their faculties before they may be viewed as attaching significance to the profession of college teaching and to preparation for it.

What emphasis should be placed on the recruitment of an enormously increased supply of college teachers depends largely upon whether the purposes accepted by expanding programs of higher education can otherwise be successfully achieved. At the present time, there appear to be two different, but not dichotomous, approaches to maintaining the quality of instruction in colleges. The first is rooted in a conviction that the potential supply of college teachers who might meet the standard of "scholarly professors" is actually limited and, therefore, ways must be found to use this limited number to full capacity. The second grows out of a commitment to the importance of a personal relationship between teacher and student and implies that capable college teachers are available; the task is to get the supply and the demand together. Proponents of the first solution fear a lowering of the quality of instruction; they fear that mediocrity will be communicated to students. Advocates of the second approach maintain that there is no substitute for the person as a guide, philosopher and friend of college students.

Possible Approaches

Cutting across the two seemingly different approaches to the problem of providing adequate instruction to increasing numbers of college students are suggestions which merit careful study. Chief among these are: (a) using discrimination in the selection of methods, (b) making effective use of technological aids to instruction, (c) modifying traditional concepts of scheduling and credit allocation, (d) providing more realistically for individual differences in students, (e) placing more responsibility for learning on the student, and (f) using special competencies of staff members appropriately. These are the concerns that should occupy the major attention of college faculties and administrators. These are the problems that should be the center of cooperative study and in-service education programs for contemporary college personnel.

• *Using discrimination in the selection of methods.* There would seem to be more rationale now than ever before for the use of the lecture as a method of college teaching. This is true if the lecture is a means for communicating to students knowledge which is not available in print, for clarifying through delineation, illustration and contrast basic concepts which students may not comprehend from the printed page or the laboratory of experience, or for raising fundamental questions or stating challenging propositions to increase the motivations and readiness of students. But the lecture cannot possibly serve most, let alone all, of the needs of students. Some purposes cannot be achieved except through individual instruction; some can best be accomplished in small groups where intercommunication in the exploration of meanings is carried on; still others may well be attained through independent study.

Of the purposes that may be accepted by a college faculty or by an individual instructor, analysis needs to be made to determine which call for what kind of teaching. In addition, consideration

should be given to the fact that not all students can best be helped to accomplish a single objective through identical learning experiences. That variety in types of learning experiences should be available for college students is a conclusion that can be supported without further exploration. What is needed now is study of the question of what purposes call for what particular methods. When more valid data are available on this question, it is very likely that the time and competencies of college teachers can be more effectively utilized. Auditorium-size classes, some followed by discussion groups; small classes and seminars; and individual tutoring will all have a rightful place in the methodology of college instruction. Lecture, demonstration, discussion, observation, field trips, films, recordings, panels, symposiums, reports, role-playing—all these techniques for helping college students to accomplish desired purposes will be found useful. The key to efficient and effective use of procedures, however, must reside in discriminating and deliberate choice on the basis of purposes to be achieved.

• *Making effective use of technological aids to instruction.* College teachers are far from taking full advantage of what technology has to offer by way of instructional materials, including television, radio, films, and laboratory equipment. Overuse or improper use of such materials is as much to be regretted as failure to recognize the contribution they can make to more adequate communication. Improper use permits possible mechanization of education and lack of use may imply a paucity of attention to current developments in teaching. Telecasting the master teacher demonstrating a creative scientific experiment, or a renowned poet reading his works, or the anthropologist displaying and discussing his collection from a recent study of a primitive civilization may be considered desirable, not because the technique of telecasting is being employed but because the procedure is providing for students a rewarding learning experience which they might not otherwise have. To say that most college teaching can be done effectively by this technique is to deny the range of purposes and of individual differences which exists. The chief problem here is that raised in the preceding paragraph: selecting methods on the basis of purposes to be served. College faculties should consciously examine which goals can best be achieved through the use of mechanical aids and which demand other procedures, particularly personal contact and interaction.

• *Modifying traditional concepts of scheduling and credit allocation.* There has grown up in American higher education a system of symbols and arrangements which seems to attach respectability to only certain kinds of learning activities on the part of college students. For example, rigid scheduling of classes to meet so many hours per semester at the rate of three times a week in fifty-minute periods is a common basis for allocating credits earned. Generally attendance at class sessions is viewed as important. Perhaps a re-examination of this concept would reveal that some purposes can be achieved through intensive workshop type classes over shorter periods of time, others through classes scheduled to meet for one larger block of time each week (one three-hour session in place of three one-hour sessions), and still others through independent study with few scheduled periods for class meetings. Again, the problem of major concern to college teachers should be that of determining what kinds of class schedules and credit allocation con-

tribute most toward goal achievement. Having done this, the task becomes one of selecting those arrangements and symbols which are conducive to the implementation of decisions made.

• *Providing more realistically for individual differences in students.* This is not as easily done in higher education as it is in elementary and secondary schools because of the obligation to society to insure competence on the part of graduating students who become licensed to undertake certain services. Then, too, tradition wields great influence on this point. The concept is widely held that higher education is for the intellectually able and others should be eliminated so that standards can be maintained. But neither the fact that larger numbers are going to college nor the acceptance of broader purposes of higher education in America needs to cause alarm about lowering standards. Rather these facts should result in increased attention to individual differences among students.

Even before educators were concerned about the increasing enrollments in higher education, progress was being made in doing something about the range of abilities characteristic of the college population. The elective system, at its height in the thirties, was one attempt. Differentiated assignments, optional activities, and cooperative planning represent ways in which college teachers have sought to provide for differences. But the introduction of prescribed general education programs appears to be accompanied by more regimentation of students. It would seem that now is the time to look at this situation quite carefully. Do all students need to take the same four or five courses during their freshman and sophomore years? Does every student need Mathematics in General Education, or Introduction to Science, or First Year College French? Realistically, no—not *all* students need these courses.

The work of college teachers could be made more effective (and the experiences of students more meaningful and worthwhile) if greater effort were expended in molding the program to meet the needs of the student rather than vice versa. This might mean opportunities for students to "test out" certain required courses, to plan for individual study when this would meet their needs, to seek their own tutors in case of special needs—in general to take more responsibility for their own learning.

• *Placing more responsibility for learning on the student.* In contrast with European higher education, colleges and universities in this country tend to place a great deal of responsibility for the student's learning on the teacher. Consequently, teachers find themselves bogged down with continuous preparation for classes, reading papers, making up and scoring examinations. Perhaps the surge of students seeking higher education now will force college faculties to think more clearly about learning, what it is and what brings it about. Not infrequently an insurmountable obstacle to doing what is thought best at the time forces creative solutions that prove to be advantageous. If surging enrollments bring about procedures for assisting students to assume more responsibility for their own learning, this will have been one rewarding outcome. Should this outcome be achieved, there is a chance that college teachers could then use their time more constructively.

• *Using special competencies of staff members appropriately.* One of the difficulties for college teachers now resides in the scope of responsibilities they are expected to assume and the implied expectation that all teachers should be able

to do all things. Some teachers are excellent lecturers, others work best with individual students; some are productive researchers and others excel as practitioners; some are successful counselors, others are not; some like to deal with advanced students, while others get their satisfaction from working with freshmen. There is need to discontinue the tendency to ascribe prestige to certain functions and to view college teachers as placed on a status hierarchy in terms of what they do. Various parts of the work of college teachers in an institution should be perceived as different in kind, not in quality. Perceiving them thus would enable college teachers to be released from certain pressures to do everything equally well and to concentrate their energies on improving the quality of those things for which their special aptitudes and characteristics fit them.

While society at large, and professional educators in particular, forge ahead to arrive at decisions on fundamental problems of making education beyond the high school available to those youth who want and can likely profit from it, college faculties would do well to set for themselves an organized program of in-service education focused on problems like the six identified here. The present corps of teachers in institutions of higher education in general have had neither the specific preparation nor the on-the-job assistance to encourage them to take seriously their responsibility for the improvement of instruction. It is to be hoped that current problems related to the necessity for teaching larger numbers in college will spark positive attitudes and deepen motivations on the part of faculty members. If this follows, college faculties, regardless of the particular circumstances surrounding higher education in the future, will view it as part of their obligation to their students to strive continually for ways of increasing the quality of educational opportunity which they make available.

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JAY DAVIS CONNER

The Junior College Adjusts to Increasing Enrollments

Long a pioneer in the junior college movement, one state is attempting through various means to improve curriculum planning for meeting the expanding enrollment.

A SERIES of three articles treating curriculum planning in the field of higher education doubtless should be prepared on a national rather than a regional basis. Since the writer is not qualified to present a national point of view, the problems and solutions herein discussed will be expressed from the point of view of California junior colleges. California is unique among the states in the degree to which it has developed its three-segment system of public higher education—junior colleges, state colleges, and the University of California. There are in California 62 public junior colleges, 10 state colleges, and the University of California with its eight campuses. Full-time enrollments in these three types of institutions for 1956 were as follows: junior colleges, 74,082; state colleges, 38,338; University of California, 37,522. The independent colleges and universities of the state enrolled a total of 42,396 full-time students.[1]

From the above figures it will be apparent that the 62 public junior colleges of California are making a significant contribution to higher education in this state, enrolling as they do about the same number of full-time students as the state colleges and the University of California combined. In terms of the lower division, the contribution of the public junior college is even more impressive. In the first two years of college work the public junior colleges of California are taking care of 74,082, the state colleges 17,227, the State University 13,127, and all independent colleges and universities combined, 19,661.[2]

Thus, with nearly 60 percent of the total full-time enrollment in grades thirteen and fourteen being found in public junior colleges in California, it is apparent that problems of coordination are of paramount importance. At the present time many colleges and universities find that over half their upper division students have come to them from public junior colleges. Projections of enrollment potentials indicate this condition will continue and perhaps increase.[3] These projections indicate that even without new institutions, attendance figures will mount by 1970 to 195,598 in the public junior colleges, 96,900 in the state col-

[1] "Full-time and Part-time Students and Veterans in Institutions of Higher Learning," Bureau of Education Research, California State Department of Education, Sacramento, 1957.

[2] Hugh G. Price. "California Junior Colleges," unfinished manuscript scheduled for 1957 publication, California State Department of Education.

[3] *A Study of the Need for Additional Centers of Public Higher Education in California.* Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1957.

leges, and 90,350 in the University of California.

These statistics point directly to the most important problem for curriculum planning in California higher education —coordination. The importance of this phase of the problem is further highlighted by such factors as a highly mobile population, rapid change in the basic economic and industrial development of the state, fluctuating needs of the military services, rising demand for technically trained personnel in all lines of work, and employment conditions in general.

The factors of economic, industrial, and occupational changes create a need for continuous reappraisal of role and function as between the University, the four-year college, and the junior college. Agriculture education serves as a convenient example of the kind of curriculum problem which is posed for all institutions of higher education in California. Half a century ago agriculture represented the major industry of this state and accounted for the majority of all occupational opportunities. As recently as 1945 agriculture provided for 13 percent of all persons gainfully employed. Latest available figures indicate that this figure has dropped to less than 5 percent. At the same time, agriculture continues as one of the largest income-producing activities in the state. This means simply that agriculture is rapidly changing in its character as an occupational field. The small farm, family operated, is rapidly disappearing as the basis for agricultural pursuit. In its place is coming the large holding, highly integrated and mechanized in its operation, geared to scientific management along the lines of big business.

Agriculture education today, therefore, must stress such factors as marketing, finance, labor management, technical and mechanical specilization, related service occupations, and storage and shipping, as well as the principles and practices of scientific farming. In other words, agriculture in California no longer needs or offers opportunity for large numbers of farmers with elementary agricultural training, but does need and offers opportunity to persons intensively trained not only in management but in a host of related service occupations and technical specializations. By projection, the replacement needs for farm operators in the State appear to be about 5,000 per year; in contrast, the statewide immediate needs for agriculturally trained persons in business were found to be in the neighborhood of 8,000. Clearly, the implication for curriculum planners is a reappraisal of old patterns and sequences of training, along with a realistic readjustment of the role the high school, the junior college, the four-year college, and the university must cooperatively assume to meet these changing needs.

A similarly spectacular revolution is taking place in the fields of engineering and related occupations. The past decade has been one of almost continuous conference and debate over the role of the University, the four-year college, and the junior college in the field of engineering. In the early stages University personnel typically insisted that engineering must remain exclusively a University responsibility. Increasingly, however, the demands of industry for technically trained personnel, both at and below the level of graduate engineers, have focused attention of curriculum

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planners upon the necessity for technical education to satisfy these demands. Indeed, a growing segment of industry is claiming that the graduate engineer does not necessarily make the best person to fill many of the occupational fields related to and identified with engineering but which do not require the skills inherent in research and design but only technical competence in the practical procedures of layout, foremanship, etc. Out of prolonged and still unresolved discussion and interchange, there is appearing a clear indication of future development along lines of shared and coordinated responsibility.

What is happening in the fields of agriculture and engineering is occurring to a greater or less degree in other occupational fields. The future role of the junior college is clearly revealed in the changing ratio of technically trained to unskilled labor in the economy of our country. In turn, this new role of the junior college in providing terminal training for many of the subprofessional occupations, and transfer training for others, defines the problem of coordination. Both types of training must be closely related and interdependent if the needs of our economy are to be met efficiently and with a minimum amount of lost motion.

Improving Curriculum Planning

With these needs clearly in mind, the junior colleges of California have been moving rapidly in developing the machinery for better curriculum planning and coordination. First, in an attempt to set their own house in order, these junior colleges decided that machinery was needed to promote better standards both for courses of study and instruction. The first move was to establish an accreditation system which would be based not upon the patterns of four-year colleges but upon their own special aims and objectives. Through conferences with the Western College Association and the State Department of Education, groundwork was laid for accreditation procedures appropriate to these aims jointly administered and controlled by the three agencies but without the domination of any one. Legislation was sought and obtained to place this procedure upon a sound and firm legal and financial basis.

Simultaneously an intensive, foundation supported study of the role of the junior college in general education was conducted on a statewide basis under the general supervision of the American Council on Education, Western Division. This study led to the formation of a continuing Committee on General Education which serves as a statewide and over-all planning and coordinating group enlisting the aid and cooperation of many academic fields. For example, this committee is currently engaged in guiding the junior college level participation in a statewide study of the social studies throughout the entire scope of the locally-controlled public school system of the state, from kindergarten through junior college.

A recent move in the same direction was the establishment in 1956 of a statewide conference for deans of instruction. This, the first meeting of its kind for personnel engaged in over-all curriculum planning and instructional leadership, was so successful that it has been established as a continuing conference, meeting in alternate years, but with provision for interim committee work.

No account would be complete without mention of the notable contributions of the professional associations devoted to specialized fields of instruction.

The University of California has given

significant leadership throughout the years to better coordination of higher education, not only through conducting several meetings each year for the consideration of mutual problems by all the various agencies concerned with higher education, but through continuous public and professional encouragement and support of the junior college movement. Through its Office of Relations with Schools, the University maintains constant liaison and identification with the problems of the junior colleges and has at all times been active in seeking fair and mutually advantageous solutions to problems of admissions, transfers, and curriculum.

One of the troublesome problems in California has been to bring about a clear definition of the role of various educational institutions and agencies in adult and extension education. Within the past fifteen years three successive statewide committees under the joint sponsorship of the State Department and the University have struggled with this problem. The problem does not appear to be entirely solved though notable progress has been made in identifying special areas of responsibility and in setting up machinery for the adjudication of problems of jurisdiction. Involved are the locally administered programs of adult education, the extended day programs of the junior colleges, and extension programs of the four-year state colleges, the independent four-year colleges and universities, and the University of California. Each of the advisory committees has issued reports and recommendations designed to lay down the general principles needed to insure coordination, as well as to deal with certain current specific problems of pressing importance. In general, the practice of appointing local committees representative of all the agencies named, under the chairmanship of a district superintendent of schools, has proven to be an equitable way of deciding which agency is best equipped to meet specific needs at a particular time in a given community. Such voluntary machinery is cumbersome at best, and problems of unilateral action without prior consideration by these arbitration boards will probably continue to plague this area of educational service for some time to come. The problem is further complicated by a multiplicity of bases for financial support as among the various agencies concerned, indeed these problems often outweigh the educational requirements as causal factors. Need for early and satisfactory solutions is indicated not only by the amount of professional concern but by recent activity of interim committees of the legislature.

Current developments in secondary education give promise of promoting closer coordination not only among the high schools of the state but of promoting better articulation between all secondary education and the institutions of higher education. California for decades has resisted accreditation of the public high schools of the state as such accreditation systems have been developed and administered in other sections of the nation. This resistance reflects a deep seated fear of domination by institutions of higher education. However, there has been increasing recognition among the secondary schools that maintaining and insuring minimum standards of quality in educational offerings is essential if restrictive legislative and regulatory controls are to be avoided. Consequently, the secondary schools have developed a system of accreditation essentially based upon self-surveys. After careful experimentation this system has been approved by the State Department

of Education and a Commission on Accreditation is in process of formation. First, four studies are initiated and conducted by the high school itself in accordance with procedures and upon forms provided by the commission. One of these studies is conducted by the school administration, one by the teaching staff, one by the students, and the fourth by the non-certificated employees. Following this self-survey the school is visited by a team which uses the accumulated data as the basis for its own first-hand study and evaluation. A report to the State Commission by this visiting team, accompanied by the self-study results, forms the basis for action by the commission after opportunity for the local school administration to have a hearing if the report is negative. The commission is equally divided in membership between secondary school administrators and a representative each from the State Department of Education, the State University, the State Colleges, Junior Colleges, Western College Association, California Teachers Association, and the California Association of School Administrators. At the 1957 session of the State Legislature a section of the Education Code authorizing junior colleges to pay the expenses of accreditation visits was amended to include secondary schools. Accreditation on this basis is voluntary, but there is little doubt that local pressures for accreditation will force the vast majority of public high schools of the state to seek it.

Finally, the problem of teacher certification has been under intensive study in California. A committee under the leadership of the California Association for Teacher Education has rendered a report and recommendations for sweeping reductions in the number and kind of credentials which should be issued for teaching in the locally controlled public schools of the state. This report will be circulated generally throughout the state for the first time in the fall of 1957. Reactions to the proposals cannot be predicted accurately at this time. It seems certain the recommendations will provoke widespread discussion and spirited reaction from various interest groups. Among the points of discussion which very likely will arise is the question of whether teaching at the junior college level should be subject to State licensure through the regular and provisional credentials. Advocates of freedom from existing requirements point to the colleges and universities which have no such licensure but depend entirely upon the accreditation process for insuring standards of quality in their educational offerings. The report recommends a continuation of the credential procedure for the junior college as a necessary safeguard under existing conditions of local control and operation of the 62 separate institutions. Unquestionably the credential requirement works some hardship in the recruitment of faculty from some fields of specialization—on the other hand it has not been established that these difficulties are serious or insurmountable within the pattern of credential requirements. So the debate waxes.

Thus, with current movements on all fronts and at all levels, with interested participation by public as well as by professional agencies, with continuing legislative and financial pressures for more clearly defined goals and procedures, the problem of better standards, better coordination of offerings, facilitation of transfer and admissions between and among the three public agencies of higher education occupies the center of the stage in the State of California at this time.

RICHARD E. LAWRENCE

Creative Planning in the Four-Year College

Creating a sound yet flexible program for its students is a continuing responsibility of the modern four-year undergraduate college.

OPTIMISM regarding the future of higher education in America is hard to sustain under present circumstances. The now familiar statistics and predictions regarding increases in the demands for post-secondary school education and training, considered together with the relative paucity of present or foreseeable resources to meet these demands, give cause for concern if not for alarm. Yet there is also cause for hope in the current situation. The times are so demanding of change that colleges may find it possible to break from those patterns of the past which are obsolete; to rethink and reshape programs of undergraduate education along more effective and educationally sounder lines. Courageous and imaginative leadership can utilize the current threat of deterioration in collegiate education as an unusual opportunity for long-range improvements.

To call attention to the need for creative curriculum planning and development in American four-year undergraduate colleges is not to overlook or belittle the many efforts which have been and are being made to improve that segment of higher education in our country. But we live in a world of rapidly accelerating change and it is reasonable to say that present attempts to prepare for the known, let alone the unknown, future of higher education are seriously inadequate.

That American collegiate education will change is a certainty. That it will change for the better is a matter of question. There is little chance that our colleges and universities can *successfully* "muddle through" the next ten or fifteen years. The maintenance and enhancement of quality in higher education will depend upon the extent to which changes are the result of careful and intelligent planning rather than the products of expedient adjustment to irresistible pressures.

Sound curriculum planning, even under the most ideal circumstances, is a difficult process. Experience has shown that the continuing and cooperative efforts of all persons involved in the educational situation are essential to successful curriculum development. The difficulty of establishing conditions that make such efforts possible at the college level is not a new problem. The administrative demands made upon presidents and deans and the competing interests and responsibilities of faculty members have served in the past to keep both these groups from giving adequate attention to basic educational problems. As Carmichael has pointed out,

> . . . the matter of the direction of educa-

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tional change has fallen between two stools with the result that it has been determined largely by pressure rather than by planning, by outside influence rather than by statesmanship. The great need is for educators to become masters in their household with a view to reversing the process.[1]

Reversing this process becomes increasingly urgent as the forces which make it more difficult grow steadily stronger. Fortunate is the college whose administrators and faculty members recognize the need to accept and actively engage in the development of educational policies for the future and whose personnel have the maturity which permits them to be comfortable in the presence of change. Creating an environment where change can and will be accepted by the individuals who are affected by such change is one of the most difficult tasks of the college curriculum worker. In this regard, it seems likely that the question of whether there is time to change people before other elements of the educational situation are changed will be one of the most difficult procedural problems demanding the attention of curriculum planners in the years immediately ahead. In addition, the problem of finding the time, the energy and the resources to do an adequate job of planning for change will require unusual measures for its solution.

Curriculum revision and curriculum planning of a limited sort are time-honored and time-consuming activities familiar to every faculty member. However, if the college curriculum continues to be thought of as merely the pattern of courses which a student must successfully complete in order to graduate, there is little reason to believe that more curriculum planning, regardless of how "creative" it may be, will have any appreciable effect on the quality of learning in American colleges. Only as we conceive of the curriculum as encompassing the total college experience of the student and direct our efforts toward an understanding and enrichment of that experience will we be able to take advantage of the opportunities for positive change in the present situation. An understanding and acceptance of learning as a process rather than a quantitatively measurable product will be necessary before improvement in the quality of learning and instruction can be achieved. Attention to the total atmosphere of the institution and its influence on student experience must replace preoccupation with the reordering and renumbering of courses, the reshuffling of prerequisites and credit requirements, and the refurbishing of grading systems and the multitude of artificial motivators which have lost whatever questionable validity they ever had. It is time we should turn our efforts to discovering what really happens to students—what is meaningful to them—during their college experience. With this knowledge educators will be in a position to reshape programs so they will contribute more adequately to the purposes of college education.

For Continuing Self-Education

That purposes will continue to vary in their specifics from institution to institution is to be expected and encouraged. The needs and desires of both students and society will be too broad and varied for any single formulation of college ob-

[1] Oliver C. Carmichael, "Major Strengths and Weaknesses in American Higher Education," *Association of American Colleges Bulletin*, May 1953, p. 241-42.

jectives to direct all four-year undergraduate programs. But whether or not an institution has any unique professional or vocational overtones, it must continue to accept responsibility for providing an environment in which emerging young adults are stimulated to discover themselves and the world about them. Students must be encouraged to grapple with their own and the world's problems, and to develop the personal strengths and the understandings, skills and concerns which will enable them to continue their efforts for personal and social improvement. Without this commitment to the pervasive purposes of general or liberal education, any college will fail to fulfill its unique role in our system of higher education.

The preparation of students for continuing self-education is probably the most important objective of college experience. Creative planning for the future achievement of this goal requires a critical examination of certain aspects of traditional collegiate education. Particular attention must be given to information - disseminating, course - attending, credit-awarding, grade-rewarding, degree-granting procedures. Does the present program result in an institutional atmosphere which values independent and critical thought and gives open recognition to the pursuit of expanding knowledge, or does the program promote conformity, stultify student thought and confine student experience within rigid and narrow limits? It is time to test widely the hypothesis that a pattern of individualized, flexible and more informal education will result in more rapidly maturing students.

Already many colleges have initiated programs designed to test the feasibility of self-education through independent reading and study, work experience, travel, community service and informal discussions. Some colleges are making provisions for the inclusion of students in curriculum planning and development programs. These arrangements provide immediate steps toward the goal of developing student initiative and responsibility as well as assist the college toward realistic solutions to its curriculum problems. If these innovations in higher education prove successful, they will do much to alleviate the pressing problems brought by increasing enrollments as well as to improve the quality of college education. At the same time if we really are to view the student as the center of our concern in higher education, we must treat cautiously and carefully any tendency to solve the problems of increased enrollment by substituting mechanical devices for teachers. The personal sensitivity of teachers and the contribution of close student-teacher relationships are likely to remain essential elements in effective collegiate education.

Considering the above, it is well to remind ourselves that positive and lasting change is more likely to result from innovations if they are truly experimental. "Demonstrations" are not apt to provide a solid or valid basis for lasting change. This is not the time for riding bandwagons. Proposed changes must be based upon clear and explicit rationale derived from our understanding of how students learn and must be subjected to a critical evaluation in terms of the goals we seek. In these trying times it will be dangerously easy to fall into the error of rationalizing changes which will ease our burdens but fail to move students toward their goals. We must guard especially against being pressured into changes which are based primarily upon economic rather than educational considerations. The misuse of the scientific

method and the tendency to allow novel and attractive means to determine the ends of education are becoming all too frequent. Indifference and inaction in the face of today's problems will be dangerous, but inattention to the aims of collegiate education will be fatal.

The planning of programs which will promote and utilize self-directed education must give careful consideration to the motivation of students. If such programs are to use the real motives of students rather than those which are artificially created, these real motives must be adequately identified and understood. In addition students must be helped to understand their own motivation and be directed into activities which will provide the satisfaction and experience needed to expand and deepen their interests and concerns. At present there is some disposition to base programs of self-directed learning in higher education on the "sink or swim" doctrine. In view of the fact that the past educational experience of beginning college students usually has not prepared them to accept responsibility for their own learning, the "sink or swim" approach appears to be generally indefensible. In this instance, as well as in others, it will be important for college personnel to articulate collegiate policies and programs with those of the secondary schools from which the students come. Unfortunately, innovations at the secondary school level which were designed and initiated originally to provide high school pupils with the foundation upon which to build an increasingly self-directed education have been fairly thoroughly discredited as too "progressive" and as anti-intellectual — in many cases by the same college educators who now would welcome freshmen who possess maturity and motivation rather than a full slate of course prerequisites and an exemplary high school average. Nevertheless, the creativeness of much of the curriculum work in secondary education contains many useful suggestions for college curriculum development.

In the final analysis, the improvement of the quality of learning and instruction must be the criterion against which curriculum development is assessed. Such improvement will be effected by those who teach, for in the college as in the elementary and secondary school, the curriculum is only as good as the teacher. Our ultimate hope lies here. Higher education in our society has been, is now, and will be in the hands of dedicated, sensitive and courageous people.

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BY A FACULTY COMMITTEE

A Community, a College and a Curriculum

A community oriented college is today attempting to interpret and to meet, through intelligent and cooperative planning, action and evaluation, the needs within its service area.

A COMMUNITY oriented college must walk a peculiar curricular path, one foot on the uncertain ground of exploration, the other in the furrow of community conformity. At first glance, the community oriented college may seem much like any other standard American college. Facilities, enrollments and student-faculty ratios may fit a pattern typical of many other institutions of comparable size. In philosophical point of view and kinds of service, however, differences become real and critical. First, the community college is blood kin to the public school, established to educate to the full extent of their potential all who are able and willing. Second, the community college identifies itself intimately with the region or area it serves; community goals become college goals; community problems are reflected in college programs. To paraphrase one famous American, "What is good for the community is good for the college." Third, it deliberately seeks to multiply effective contacts with the agencies, institutions, organizations, industries and neighborhoods of its service area. Finally, the community college recognizes that curriculum planning must be basically a faculty function. Staff members engage in curriculum analysis, development and evaluation with the wholehearted enthusiasm and diligence once reserved only for the classroom and the laboratory.

San Fernando Valley State College is attempting from the outset to meet these standards of community service. Established in September 1956, as a branch of the Los Angeles State College, it has benefited immensely from the impetus of faculty and services transferred from the parent campus. Soon the college is to be on its own. Legislative action provides for complete, legal independence by July 1, 1958. In anticipation of the separation, curriculum development from the beginning has been autonomous on this campus.

Community Identification: The Foundation

The service area of the college is clearly defined. Geographical boundaries are precise: a wall of moderate mountains with passes spilling people to and from the Valley in tumultuous haste. Its size is impressive, larger in square miles than the entire city of Chicago. Its growth is spectacular. New neighborhoods seem to spring up overnight with modest cottages, apartment houses and luxury estates stretching to the encircling mountains. Community essentials cannot keep pace with the growth; public utilities, water supply, and transpor-

Chairman of the faculty committee that prepared this article was D. T. OVIATT, dean of instruction, Los Angeles State College of Applied Arts and Sciences, San Fernando Valley Campus, Northridge, California. Committee members responsible for the basic work for the article were the following: PRUDENCE BOSTWICK, professor of education; RAYMOND RYDELL, chairman, Division of Social Science; JOHN GOWAN, associate professor of education; MAURICE DANCE, associate professor of economics; MITCHELL MARCUS, associate professor of English.

tation services lag far behind. Most important, and most critical, is the problem of schools. The Valley has more elementary school children than Boston, Cleveland, New Orleans, or Seattle. Even the current "crash" school building program cannot fully meet the ever growing demand.

In this new metropolis of nine hundred thousand people the San Fernando Valley Campus is the only four-year baccalaureate college. As such it is both a part of the problem and a part of the answer. In 1955, when the State of California was seeking a permanent campus for the Los Angeles State College, representation from the San Fernando Valley was so articulate and vigorous that a supplementary site was chosen to serve this area. Even as the specific Valley site was under survey, late afternoon and evening classes were set up in a local high school to serve Valley residents. Temporary buildings were ready by September 1956, with gas, telephone, power, street paving and sewers coming in a mad August rush.

In November of 1956, though only two months old, the college asked community support for a state bond issue to provide more than twenty million dollars for capital improvement. Virtually every civic and professional organization campaigned in its behalf. Each one took partial credit for the 90% affirmative vote.

Again, in 1957, community support rallied to help pass the bills granting independent status and adding another one hundred acres to the original site. Today the college stands in great part as a testimonial to the united efforts of community action and support. Virtually every civic leader can claim some measure of credit for its very existence.

Public Service: The Need

During these initial years the college has deliberately selected its program in curricular areas of greatest need: liberal arts, to serve as the solid academic foundation; professional education, for elementary and secondary teachers; and business administration, to serve both business and industry. Each strives to serve the community in its own particular manner.

In liberal arts, for example, the college has provided a full program of late afternoon and evening cultural courses in addition to the regular daytime classes. The doors of the college are open to the public for lectures, films and dramatic performances. Dwelling in the penumbra of Hollywood lights, Childrens Theatre has taken on significant dimensions. During the first summer session more than one hundred teenagers presented twenty performances in a drama workshop jointly sponsored by the Drama Department of the college and the San Fernando Valley Youth Foundation.

In teacher-training the college has recognized the crucial shortage of teachers for the public schools. A series of conferences co-sponsored by the Parent-Teacher Association has been staged to attract more people into teaching careers. Particularly noteworthy is the summer

program designed to bring housewives with college degrees but no teacher-training into classroom service to help supply badly needed personnel. This program, organized in workshop style, was housed not on the college campus but in regular elementary classrooms through the cooperation and courtesy of the Los Angeles City Schools. Children enrolled in public school summer sessions were available for observation. Normal classroom facilities and regular supplies and bulletins added realism and challenge to the learning situation.

In the business administration program the college has made a sustained effort to meet the needs of community industry. Summer conferences have included a six weeks conference in management, a six weeks conference in auditing, two intensive courses in technical publishing, and five short courses in other aspects of technical communications. All these programs were organized in consultation with civic, industrial and professional organizations throughout the area. Members of the college staff regularly attend the meeting of industrial committees on training. Lay advisors serve various departments of the college, and professional groups such as the Technical Publishing Society help plan both regular and special curricula. In all areas, the college has maintained classes throughout the late afternoon and evenings as well as the normal day sessions. These late classes are an integral part of the regular college program, are taught by the permanent staff, and are equivalent in every way to day classes. Extension courses are given in several remote areas such as the Antelope Valley, approximately 50 miles away in the Mojave Desert, the site of several research and aircraft manufacturing facilities far removed from collegiate service.

Articulation: One Key to Better Service

Throughout all these varied activities the college administrators and faculty members are ever aware that the San Fernando Valley Campus is not the only collegiate institution serving the community and that its facilities are as yet limited. Coordination is maintained with the parent college through frequent informal meetings, appointed committees, and planned inter-campus communications. Close liaison has been established with the University of California at Los Angeles, 20 miles over the mountains, as well as with the three junior colleges and the eleven high schools located within the college service area. Frequent meetings with other administrators, counselors, faculty members, and students facilitate formal and informal exchange of ideas and help develop the personal relationships that add meaning and understanding to official communiques.

Specific results of this coordination are already apparent: (a) the decision of the San Fernando Valley Campus to offer only upper division and graduate courses in late afternoon and evening sessions so as not to duplicate offerings of the nearby junior colleges; (b) the allocation of Valley classrooms for the U.C.L.A. Engineering Extension program to offer courses on this campus rather than attempt any duplication of offerings; and (c) the streamlining of entrance and transfer procedures to accommodate the rapidly growing and shifting population. Entrance requirements for the Valley State College are specifically noted in junior college bulletins. Students enroll in courses at the Valley Campus and at Los Angeles State College with complete freedom of choice. Credit transfer problems are minimal. Students may plan

their educational programs for completion either at the Valley Campus or at the downtown center.

Curriculum: The Common Enterprise

Curriculum is seldom built under an open sky. Limitations are ever present, imposed by code, circumstances, or self. This situation is no exception. First, are the limitations of law. The Education Code specifies that California State Colleges are to offer courses in (a) teacher-training, (b) general education and responsible citizenship, (c) vocational education such as busines, public service, and social welfare and (d) pre-professional training for advanced professional studies. Beyond this are such items as budget control, staffing ratios, and the initial approval of all new curricula by appropriate state departments.

The procedure by which curriculum develops is one which involves the maximum number of individuals and groups: faculty, administrators, community representatives, and professional groups. All contribute ideas and all may participate, but the faculty and administration of the college carry the major load as their basic responsibility.

Usually, curriculum proposals originate with an individual faculty member or with some on-campus group, either formally organized for curriculum development, or perhaps organized primarily for some other purpose related to curriculum. All professional members of the college administration have status as regular and active members of the General Faculty. Curriculum developments are therefore all-college in nature. Cooperation is further secured by insuring representation from the library and the student personnel office on appropriate committees.

A growing trend is for curriculum suggestions to come from representatives of community organizations. Such suggestions and requests are considered by regular college committees. When further study is warranted, community representatives are invited either to participate personally or to supply information.

Other guidance is given by the State Department of Education which establishes basic objectives and reviews curriculum developments for all eleven California State Colleges. Their concern limits itself primarily to goals rather than specific curricula. Similarly the Western College Association, the regional accrediting agency, offers criticism and checks quality so as to provide guidelines for curricular improvement. Whatever the origin of ideas and information the faculty of the college, including the administrative officers, makes the basic decisions and assumes basic responsibility.

For the present, because of the relatively small faculty, major curriculum decisions are made by the General Faculty acting upon the considered recommendations of various study committees. As the college grows, this "town meeting" procedure may perhaps become less feasible and delegation may have to be increased. But the fundamental rule that curriculum must be built upon the broadest possible base of participation should always persist.

Community Leadership: The Challenge

Regardless of the mechanics of curriculum development, permanent principles must emphasize the service role of the college and the ultimate responsibility of the faculty. The college ought itself to serve as a model of the democratic processes and of human, yet scientific, dedication. Such a condition can be

(Continued on page 131)

A Symposium

Who Should Go To College?

ELBERT K. FRETWELL, JR.

1. Defining Aspects of the Situation

An analysis of the problems posed by the growing number of pupils who are eligible to attend college and also of certain factors which influence college attendance.

WHO *should* go to college? In a time of vastly increasing enrollments and rising costs, plus shortages of trained personnel in various professional fields, this question is of increasingly great significance. While it seems likely that the American public would reject any rigid, centrally controlled scheme of determining who should go to college—and possibly where—these times do call for more than a hit-or-miss approach. The problem should not be handled on the same basis used for loading a rush hour subway express at Times Square. Yet there may be more similarity between these two challenges than is readily apparent.

Of great encouragement is the fact that the problem posed here has already been given attention by a variety of professional and lay groups. Continuing discussion, planning and action on a long-term basis are all necessary, though, if the most effective use (however defined) is to be made of college facilities now in existence or soon to be created. Obviously the decision as to who should receive a college education will be of vital concern to many groups and individuals. It may be assumed that college experience continues to assist promising young people to carry roles of leadership—as well as followership—in business, industry, government, the professions, labor and the armed forces. So all of these groups, and more, have a substantial stake in what the college graduate will look like in the future. They may well ponder the question: Can we have quality and quantity both?

The most fruitful discussion of the who-shall-go? problem might well be based on consideration of certain "facts of life" facing higher education today. One of these is the increasing degree of congestion soon to become apparent on already crowded campuses. Another concerns identification of the current influences affecting college attendance. Finally, the need exists to place responsibility for decisions regarding college-going patterns. Steps must be taken to define the factors which must be considered in making these decisions.

The Problem of Numbers

In a nutshell, this problem has dual aspects: there are now more people of college age, and an increasing percentage of this age group want to go to college. In 1900, for example, there were less than six million youth in the 18-21 age bracket. In 1955 the number was

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well on its way toward nine million. To complicate things even further, the *percentage* of the age group wishing to enjoy the various benefits of higher education has climbed from 4% to almost 33% since the turn of the century.[1] In other words, where once every twenty-fifth college-age youth actually enrolled, now roughly every third person in this category becomes a college student.

And this is only the beginning of what is being called a tidal wave! Unless the national birth rate suddenly slackens, this seeming wave represents a new high water level which takes on aspects of permanency. The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School notes—as have many others—that the effects of the post-war birth rate increase will hit the colleges hardest in the next ten or fifteen years. By 1970 it is anticipated that the present enrollments will have doubled—from three million to approximately six million.[2]

This promise of increased numbers has been greeted with a variety of reactions. At one end of the educational spectrum are those endowed institutions dedicated to remaining small and to emphasizing ever higher standards. The great wave of future applications presents opportunity for their admissions officers to raise cut-off points and admit students of even higher qualifications than previously from the greater pool of candidates. At the other extreme certain state and urban universities, community colleges, and others dedicated to serving virtually all interested youth who are high school graduates see themselves being swamped with students whom they feel an obligation to accept.

Heartening news is evident from even a cursory view of the higher education landscape. Moves are being made toward providing more facilities, but are they enough? Many states in all parts of the nation have conducted surveys, formal or otherwise, on the extent of need for additional higher education facilities and what steps are being taken toward providing these. In New York State, for example, a recent State Education Department study revealed that higher institutions—public and private—propose between now and 1970 to create room for approximately 70,000 more students in four-year degree programs. Even so there will be a shortage of over 39,000 spaces in baccalaureate courses of study, to which is added another shortage of facilities for about 34,000 students in so-called technical-terminal programs of a two-year nature.[3] Other states report comparable situations.

Given the resources to expand, many colleges will increase their enrollments from a few hundred to several thousand each. The problem is complicated, as usual, by the uncertainty of funds for plant, equipment and staff. Even if resources are adequate to provide satisfactory faculty salaries, there remains the gnawing question which must already be keeping administrators awake at night: where to recruit the thousands of needed faculty members? And, if the arduous labors of admissions officers allow time for sleep, the nightmarish query must still be faced: were the *right* students

[1] See table in Educational Policies Commission, *Higher Education in a Decade of Decision.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, NEA, 1957, p. 22.

[2] *New York Times,* August 11, 1957.

[3] *Statement and Recommendations by the Board of Regents for Meeting the Needs in Higher Education in New York State, Adopted December 21, 1956.* Albany: State Education Department, 1957, p. 9.

admitted for next year's freshman class?

College Attendance Influences

Havighurst and Rodgers have identified five major factors affecting college attendance: mental ability, social expectation, individual motivation, financial ability, and propinquity to a higher institution.[4]

The son or daughter of white-collar suburban parents would represent, quite frequently, a cluster of many or all of these factors. On the other hand, youth living in an isolated rural area where few parents have been to college might possess high mental ability in some cases, but lack the other factors. The student with a minority group background may also face artificial barriers in gaining admittance or following the course of study he desires.

More than half of the top quarter in ability of young people of high school graduation age typically do *not* attend college.[5] This observation is of great import to all those concerned with trained manpower and womanpower. Financial inability has often been cited as the reason. By entering college a student or his family assumes responsibility for whatever tuition or fees exist at the college attended. In addition the student removes himself from the possibility of entering the labor market, at least on a full-time basis, sometimes moves away from home if he becomes a residential student, and acquires other expenses ranging from such necessities as books to such pleasant luxuries as an Ivy League wardrobe, depending upon his circumstances.

It becomes apparent, then, that the presence of certain factors *without others* (mental ability or individual motivation may be limited, for example) may account for college attendance not because of strong intellectual interests or professional career motivation, but rather because college is "the thing to do." It has been acutely observed by Robert McEwen that " 'going to college' is more important to many Americans than getting a college education."[6]

The question must still be raised, however, as to what the basic purpose is—or should be—in college attendance. Is the bachelor's degree to become a sort of good conduct award for having endured four years, or is it to indicate an individual who has gained certain skills and knowledge, and whose intellect and interests have been stimulated to the point where he continues to propel himself toward that elusive goal of becoming an educated man? This question needs to be answered before we can truly determine who should go to college.

Future Decisions Regarding College-Going Patterns

There are at least two major criteria which will probably condition future decisions regarding opportunity to attend college in the crowded years ahead. One of these is the extent of the desire of our society to assure each young citi-

[4] Robert J. Havighurst and Robert R. Rodgers. "The Role of Motivation," in Byron S. Hollinshead, *Who Should Go to College?* New York: Columbia University Press, 1952, p. 137.

[5] Hollinshead, *op. cit.*, p. 38-39. Concerning the top quarter in ability of potential college students, Hollinshead found "that slightly over 40% graduate from high school and go to college, slightly under 40% are high school graduates but do not go to college, and slightly under 20% do not graduate from high school. In other words, if we isolate the top quarter in ability, we find that the colleges are now educating over two-fifths of them." Since he drew these data from a report of the Committee on Human Resources and Advanced Training in 1951, it is hoped that by now this situation has improved somewhat.

[6] *College Admissions.* New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1957, p. viii.

zen that through education he may become all he is capable of being. As is often pointed out, there is still available through higher education the kind of self fulfillment and upward social mobility once represented by the Westward Movement and the actual physical pioneering of new territory. This criterion is very much concerned with the person as an individual. Through it, however, is the concern for a well-educated citizenry in the fullest sense of that term.

Another significant criterion which will have great influence on the kind, as well as amount, of expanded collegiate programs to be made available is the professional manpower squeeze. It is apparent from such sources as the report of the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Training that for some time to come well prepared individuals will be in short supply in such vital areas as the natural sciences and engineering (a shortage of some 30,000 per year), teaching at the pre-college level (an insufficiency of about 60,000 per year), and also in medicine, dentistry, nursing, home economics, and other fields to a lesser extent.[7]

If the American public is genuinely concerned over these factors of individual development and sufficient professional manpower, it seems likely that additional funds now sorely needed by both private and public higher institutions will be forthcoming. There appears to be growing feeling, however, that the public wants to know how its funds are being spent, and demands that each dollar—from tax funds or otherwise—must be called upon to do its utmost. This view of value received is in the best American tradition and suggests strongly that if a person is to be admitted to a higher institution supported in part, at least, by voluntary donations or not-so-voluntary tax collections, he must be a good investment.

What does this mean in terms of who should go to college? In brief, it suggests that now, more than ever before, the oft-lamented diversity in American higher education can be viewed as a substantial strength. As the Educational Policies Commission has observed, "abilities which warrant college education . . . are not narrowly defined. . . . By providing differentiated opportunities, many colleges are meeting the needs of students who have varied interests." And, as the Commission's report continues, "differences among colleges provide opportunity for higher education for a larger proportion of students and for a wider variety of talents."[8]

Since colleges are fortunately not standardized but rather seek to achieve their own particular goals, the question at hand—who should go to college?—might well be broadened. In Hollinshead's words, the question reads: Who ought to go to what college, if he should go at all?[9] This expanded query, to be dealt with in more detail in the statements which follow, suggests the need for even better communication between secondary and higher education people, that each may do the best job of advising and guiding ambitious youth. It suggests that individual colleges should state more clearly than ever before just what their objectives are, and what particular qualities or aptitudes they believe potential students should have demonstrated before admission. It suggests that while an excessively early frost should not be per-

[7] Dael Wolfle, *America's Resources of Specialized Talent*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954.

[8] Educational Policies Commission, *op. cit.*, p. 23.

[9] Hollinshead, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

mitted to stunt the "late bloomer," perhaps of even more importance is the constant stimulation of the gifted and the nearly gifted.

Still better guidance in the high school, more stimulation of college attendance by such means as scholarships based on merit together with financial need, loan funds, self-help plans, and other devices, are of greatest importance in seeing that many more able students actually enroll and complete college work. There is general agreement that these young people, once identified, are good investments.

The pressing question remains, however, as to who else should go to college, since the desire for an academic degree is obviously not limited to, say, the top 25% in mental ability, however measured. Nor is it probable that the needs for skilled personnel for the professions and the semi-professionals can be met entirely by educating this fraction of the

(Continued on page 115)

WENDELL C. ALLEN

2. Differentiated Opportunities for the Many

Reasons why differentiated opportunities must continue to be made available to the many are presented and discussed in this statement.

THE GREAT debate concerning the extent to which there should be educational opportunity beyond the high school has not been concluded, else you would not be reading this symposium on "Who Should Go to College?" Yet, without referring specifically to the many summaries of lay and professional expressions on this question, it seems to me justifiable to say that the weight of judgment favors provision of educational opportunity beyond the high school now and in the future on at least as free and unrestricted a basis as in the recent past. The major reason for this view appears to be that the fabric of our society and its strength now and in the future depend upon continuation of our attempt to enhance the value and contribution of the individual citizen. Thus, it is vital to provide maximum educational opportunity to all our citizens, average and below average, as well as those above average.

A related and important reason for providing maximum educational opportunity for all should be noted. While agreeing we must be sure to provide education for our future "leaders," we must admit that despite significant advances in methods of scientific appraisal of human abilities and potential it is impossible for us to ascertain in advance those who are going to be influential people in later life. We cannot even identify with fair precision those who will complete successfully a college program in a multipurpose college.

In this latter connection, I should like to refer readers to a recent analysis of the characteristics of the 1955 graduating class of the University of Kansas

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prepared by George B. Smith, dean of the University.[1] In his analysis Dean Smith shows in detail what would have been the effect on the University's class of 1955 of using a "cutting score" of the 50th percentile on the basis of the A.C.E. and the English placement examination for admission to the University.[2] There were 1,134 graduates of the University in 1955. Entrance placement test data was available for 1,006 of these graduates. Of the graduates 208 had scored below the 50th percentile in the entrance tests. I should note that Dean Smith used the 50th percentile because it had been suggested as a logical "initial discussion" springboard in considering a basis for selective admission. In his conclusion Dean Smith states that if the "cutting score" of the 50th percentile had been used for the students in that class "the loss to the state and nation would have been forty teachers, twenty-two engineers, five journalists, seven lawyers, seven doctors, seven pharmacists, and ninety-six graduates from the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences and the School of Business who majored in areas where the supply of trained manpower is in equally short supply."

Only when selecting students for a well-delineated educational program can we hope to be reasonably successful in securing those who have the pattern of abilities desired. Even in such cases we are certain to eliminate candidates who would succeed in the program. The extent of such elimination would depend upon the location of the "cutting point" in the selection devices.

Much has been said and written to the effect that the present high mortality of students in the freshman and sophomore years is wasteful of human and material resources. It is said also that the presence on the campus of the students who do not finish the four-year program greatly hampers the effort of the faculty to develop an intellectual climate and maintain desirable academic standards. Certainly, problems involved in providing educational opportunity for the many are complex; however, the problem of numbers is relative, since few, if any, of our colleges will be dealing with small numbers of students. Success in creating a favorable atmosphere for learning and in maintaining academic standards results from a number of conditions on a college campus, among which are the abilities, interests and effort of the students. We should be cautious about claiming that such waste as may be associated with attrition of our student bodies is due for the most part to the low ability of the students terminated.

From the point of view of the student as well as society it is moot indeed whether the high attrition in the first two years of college is even in large part wasteful. The students who drop out of their own accord or are otherwise terminated have had their opportunity at college and the benefits to be derived from this experience.

Acceptance of our responsibility for providing differentiated opportunity for the many means we must think in terms of flexible and diversified curricula for a

[1] *Who Would Be Eliminated? A Study of Selective Admission to College.* By George B. Smith, dean of the University, University of Kansas. Kansas Studies in Education. Lawrence, Kansas: University of Kansas Publications, School of Education. Vol. 7, No. 1, December 1956.

[2] *American Council on Education* (A.C.E.) *Psychological Examination, 1948 College Form,* and *The Cooperative English Test, Form OM.*

student body with as great a variety and range of abilities as at present. Acceptance of this opportunity to enrich the lives of an increasing proportion of a growing college-age population must not result in a lowering of the quality of the educational program. To meet the need we must examine our methods and our organization, build upon what we have that is good, and not hesitate to experiment and develop such new methods and organization as may be necessary to do the job.

As a preliminary to some suggestions of the direction in which I think we will move in an effort to provide differentiated opportunity for the many, the following statements are presented, which though probably not "self-evident" are, I believe, of sufficient validity to be given serious consideration:

1. The public and the profession do not want the occupational career direction of youth to be chosen irrevocably in the first years of high school with the result that alternate avenues of study will be either closed entirely or difficult to pursue at a later time.

2. Individual potentiality is so great and can be so varied in the nature and richness of its expression as to preclude conclusive prediction of the direction it should or will take.

3. The motivation of the individual has a significant effect upon his performance.

4. Students can and should take a much more active and responsible role in the educative process.

5. The clarity of objectives of a college and of the students as well as the educational climate influence student performance greatly.

6. The heavy increase in college enrollment which soon will be with us has now come to be recognized as an opportunity for higher education, a challenge to the ingenuity of American educators. The steady increase in the percentage of the college-age population attending college is evidence of the increased regard of youth and the public generally for higher education.

7. Tradition, vested interests, and reluctance of many faculty members to experiment with new approaches in curriculum organization, in teaching methods and in the organization of the college can block constructive effort to develop new approaches to meet new and serious problems which colleges now face.

8. Opportunity for a college education should be genuine, not theoretical. The opportunity is theoretical rather than real if overcrowding of college facilities in the next two decades, the cost of going to college or the standards for entrance are such that it is impossible for an even higher percentage of the college-age population than at present to plan for college.

What Direction Will Our Effort Take?

The statements which follow are in the form of predictions of the direction our effort will take in attempting to provide differentiated educational opportunity for the many. Despite the unqualified nature of these statements they are made without a feeling of prescience on my part; rather, it is hoped that as part of a brief discussion of this complex problem such an approach will help to stimulate and possibly sharpen thinking about the action that must be taken if we are to make a genuine effort to provide differentiated educational opportunities for the many.

1. The number and enrollment of four-year colleges will increase substan-

tially. This will be true of both public and private colleges, but especially of the former. The number and enrollment of community and junior colleges will increase greatly. Also, there will be an increase in the number and the enrollment of universities.

2. An important development will be the improved articulation of secondary schools, community and junior colleges, four-year colleges and universities. There will be more extensive and intelligent use of evaluative instruments as an aid to student guidance and student program planning.

3. In general, the present tendency to make college entrance more difficult on an across-the-board basis will be discarded. This will tend to result in more, rather than less, utilization of scientific means of individual appraisal in assisting college candidates and students in planning for their education.

4. The objective of four-year colleges will be more clearly recognized as provision of opportunity for students to secure a liberal education. Their curriculum will include opportunity for beginning studies in technical and vocational fields. The present trend toward broadening and liberalizing preprofessional studies and building professional preparation upon general education will be accelerated. Professional preparation per se increasingly will be a function of graduate education, and technical and vocational preparation will be completed in specialized schools and in educational programs of industry.

Junior and community colleges will offer liberal, technical, vocational and adult education programs. They will neither supplant the four-year college nor become "screening schools" for "highly selective" colleges. As at present, many of their graduates will choose to continue their education in a four-year college or university. Only in the case of the large universities will there be a marked tendency for the enrollment of the first two years of the undergraduate program to be less than that of the last two years. The large institutions will put major emphasis on expansion of their graduate programs and upon public service contributions.

5. In all post-secondary institutions there will be a strong effort to improve the climate for learning. This will be achieved not through insistence on perpetuation of particular scholarly traditions but rather through emphasis upon the purposes of education as distinct from those paraphernalia of higher education intended originally to promote educational objectives. The college atmosphere in which course grades and degrees are ends in themselves will be attacked vigorously.

There will be far greater student responsibility and active participation in the teaching-learning process with extensive departures from the common pattern of regular classes based on one hour of class per week for one credit. Evaluation for college exit will be emphasized much more than piecemeal evaluation for purposes of credit accumulation. Extensive experimentation with teaching-learning approaches and with organization of curriculum content will result in a much more flexible curriculum but by no means in a proliferation of unrelated courses. There will be many different patterns of organization developed for the college day, week and year. The basis upon which degrees are granted will be changed, departing from the present standardized system of accumulation of approximately 120 semester or 180 quarter hours of credit.

6. The force of tradition and the re-

luctance of faculties to make rapid and radical changes can be relied upon to insure orderly change and sound experimentation. The end result will be a society tomorrow that is more soundly and liberally educated than today.

To provide differentiated educational opportunity for the many it will be necessary to provide each student with the best and most accessible assistance, i.e., guidance and leadership in learning. Ways must be developed to provide students individually and in small and large groups with more and better assistance in the educative process than they receive generally today.

I believe that our society will decide it is essential to insure that post-secondary school age youth in the future will have real, rather than theoretical, opportunity for further education on a differentiated basis. President Sproul of the University of California[3] stated as a part of discussion of the problems with which we are concerned: "Nor is relief to be found in the setting of standards of admission that will eliminate the overwhelming majority of young people, as is the practice in most of the rest of the world. The development of American education has been motivated from the beginning, and increasingly throughout our history, by respect for all honest vocations and all useful labor, and by a desire to provide for equality of opportunity for all youth." The idea of the importance of the individual and that a vital function of the institutions of society is to foster his optimum development is central to the concept of a society which truly desires to realize democratic ideals. Clearly, a resolution of our growth problems through failure to provide differentiated educational opportunity for the many would be a turning away in this generation from the democratic ideals which are our heritage.

Further, if the record of past achievements in the field of education has any meaning for us, failure to seize the opportunity to develop our human resources which is presented by the growing numbers of college-age youth would show us to be something less indeed than our fathers. Dean Strevey of the University of Southern California[4] puts it well when he says, "Surely we face problems and decisions . . . But let me point out that between 1900 and 1925 college enrollment increased five times. Between 1925 and 1940 it doubled and again it doubled between 1940 and 1955. Growth and flexibility have always been features of our system of education. The literature of those years reads much like the literature of today. We found answers then and we will find them again."

[3] Address by Robert Gordon Sproul, president, University of California, Western Regional Conference, President's Committee for Education Beyond the High School, San Francisco, April 10, 1957.

[4] Address given by Tracey E. Strevey, dean, College of Letters, Arts, and Sciences, University of Southern California, Western Regional Conference on Education Beyond the High School, San Francisco, April 11, 1957.

MILTON J. GOLD

3. A Concept of Continuing Education

Assuming that our society will continue to provide higher educational opportunities for an increasing population, this author discusses the content of this continued education and its contribution to a continuing self-education.

"THE THINGS which are taught children are not an education but the means of education." Emerson,[1] writing this more than a century ago, stated succinctly the case for continuing education.

In this symposium we are actually concerned with two different things: (a) *formal education* beyond high school *as an institution* preparing for the better life and for certain occupations; (b) *the way in which formal education is utilized*—as a whetstone to sharpen the appetite for further learning, as a tool for continuing self-education.

Previous articles in this symposium are primarily concerned with the first of these interests—opportunities for formal education beyond high school. This is an increasingly important concern because of population factors and trends in the economy, but especially important if one views education as a continuing process which derives its major stimulus from previous experiences.

Despite this very legitimate concern by all of us in the profession, however, the decision as to whom we shall educate or as to whether we shall widen the base of college education lies not in our hands. Historically, the extension of educational opportunity—elementary, high school, beyond—has been dictated by two conditions. First is the *ability* of the economy to support a large proportion of a given age group while it is preparing for, rather than contributing to, our productive life. The other is the *need* of the economy for better educated entry workers. These conditions account for the spread of elementary education in the last century and of secondary education in the first half of this century.

Present developments indicate these two conditions are increasing. The passage of a few years will bring the children born in high birth rate years into the labor market, 4 million annually in place of today's 2 million. The current tremendous investment in industrial plant is bound to result in increased productivity for each worker—again restricting the need for labor. There can be little question that colleges, junior colleges, community colleges, vocational institutes will be required by society to provide places for those whom the economy cannot absorb; will be required to provide necessary training for a more complex industry and society. If these do not, then new institutions may have to be developed such as the National Youth Administration and Civilian Conservation Corps of the depression years. Most educators would rather see educational needs provided by educational institutions less directly influenced by politics.

[1] I am indebted for this quotation to Edgar Dale of The Ohio State University. See *Journals of Ralph Waldo Emerson: with Annotations*, Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1909, II, p. 412.

The Real Issue

This means that the really live issue is not the *provision* of higher levels of education but the content of this continued education and its contribution to a continuing self-education. Accordingly, our major concern is not buildings, budgets and staff resources. We must focus attention on programs to meet the continuing educational needs of a majority of the nation's college-age youth. The dynamic nature of our society and economy indicates that the most important need is development of individual resources for continuing self-education.

Continuing education for most young people beyond grade 12 should involve consideration of basic values in programs of universal education below that level. Continuing in school is not in itself a guarantee of continuing education. There is need for genuine analysis of the needs of 19 and 20 year olds (at least) in our society and the differentiated programs necessary to meet these needs. Certainly we have to look at the need for personal involvement in true learning—a sense of commitment on the part of the learner to educational goals, a degree of participation in selection of goals and methods through which to pursue them. In view of the non-functional nature of many high school and college programs, "more of the same" may not be a very valid prescription.

Goals of Continuing Education

It seems to me that the goals of continuing education should be these:

1. Building interest in, and skills to pursue, a program of continuing self-improvement and advancement. These include conventional skills in reading and library research, but also competence in using mass media and effectiveness in interpersonal relationships designed to promote learning that comes through participation in group projects.

2. Preparation for vocational placement. With mature interests rising above the horizon of awareness, specific skill development and preprofessional education are in order for this age group. Also more meaningful are general orientation to the work-world, building of general work habits and attitudes, and exposure to work experience of a general as well as specific nature.

3. Understanding human relationships. Emergence of the high school graduate into adult social and political status underlines the readiness that exists for continuing programs that focus on citizenship needs (information, understandings, skills), interpersonal relationships (including family living), intergroup relationships and the dynamics of group membership and action.

4. Development of satisfying and constructive leisure time interests. This should be self-evident in dealing with an age group that has time on its hands and newly acquired authority to decide how to use it.

5. Building values with respect to the good, the true and the beautiful. Ethical considerations, a philosophy of life, artistic expression and appreciation require maturity and contribute to maturation. An adult point of view has to be developed, and, in developing, leads to "growing up."

6. Personal development *per se*. We return, herewith, to the purpose of goal number one as a major value in our culture. This encompasses healthy living, physically and emotionally. It involves

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education for the general purposes of growth, assistance in man's age-old striving for perfection ("What I aspired to be/And was not comforts me.").

Informal Means to Continuing Education

Actually, however, opportunities for formal education are but a small part of the task of continuing education. They continue to represent what Emerson called "but the means" of education. Certain other avenues are open for this purpose. These include the mass media of communication (newspapers, periodicals, radio, motion pictures, television, recordings), libraries, adult education courses offered by school or community agencies, industrial upgrading programs operated by employing firms, union programs of general or vocational nature, religious activities, social contacts, community service opportunities and political action.

Obviously, education is not a matter of formal programs alone. What but education accrues to the individual who participates in programs of his local mental health association, in heart, cancer, tuberculosis, polio and muscular dystrophy drives, in chest X-ray programs, in civil defense organization, in film classics programs and art exhibits, in creative art or music experiences, in hobby workshops, in local concert series or musical groups, in the community's radio book review program or little theater, in the conservation activities of the sportsmen's club or garden club, in programs of the soil conservation district or grange, in the international relations study group of the AAUW, in the get-out-the-vote drive of the League of Women Voters or the know-your-candidates program of the Municipal League, in the campaigns of local political party organizations, in community improvement or community study projects?

Tools Needed for Continuing Education

To a degree, the effective utilization of these opportunities depends upon the quality of the job done by formal educational institutions. What does the college (high school and elementary, too) contribute to intelligent participation in these activities? What are the tools of continuing education?

A background of general information?

Skills in reading to gain further information and understanding?

Skills in listening and viewing for the same purposes?

Standards of criticism and appreciation to guide in selection of the truly valuable?

Skills in expression to contribute to active participation?

Understanding of human aspirations, motivation, emotions that make group membership effective?

Experience in expressing oneself as an individual? In working with others as members of a group?

To Dewey learning was a continuous process of restructuring experience. The individual meets some new adventure (activity, experience, information, insight) and uses it to put relevant parts of his past experience into new perspective. New generalizations, new ways of understanding the world (i.e., one's experience of it) develop. This is education.

Formal education is used to accelerate the process. The human race has found some things of such significance that they are not left to chance but are deliberately presented to the child in our culture. Where teaching is effective, the learner is helped to use these new experiences to reconstruct his world. Unfortu-

nately, schools cannot predict all that is needed—nor can they do the reconstructing which must go on in the child's experience. Commonly accepted constructs make up the mass of the elementary curriculum. In secondary schools the mass of knowledge is divided between general requirements (agreed-upon essentials) for all students and specialized areas which students may elect.

In college this process is carried still further. What is important to one student is presumed to be of little importance to another (why else the elective system?). In all candor, we must admit that even the college student is getting only a start on the learnings which will be necessary to him as a citizen, worker, family member, individual human being. What is of importance, therefore, is not the courses taken on any school level, not the educational level achieved (in terms of years of school completed), but the competence that has been developed which is necessary for effective continuation of education. In addition to the tools already listed, these include progressive assumption of greater responsibility for one's own education, development of the "inquiring mind," establishing realistic interests and the skills necessary for their pursuit, building the attitude that one doesn't have all the answers, all the education needed for the rest of one's life.

Importance of Method

If these—and other—competences are necessary tools for continuing education, the importance of process in learning is underlined. The basic assumption in many schools is that the school will help the student learn the information and skills which will stand him in good stead for the rest of his life. But, given the changing nature of human society at all times and the contemporary changes which seem to us unprecedented in their speed (partly because we are in their midst), such an assumption has always been fallacious. If life is continuing and changing, then education must be a continuous process, and the major function of the school is to develop competence in this process.

A primary issue, then, is how competence in continuing self-education is developed. Time-honored methods seem based on the idea that one learns how to learn in the process of learning something. If this is true, the more challenge inherent in a learning problem, the greater the potential for learning how to learn. If this procedure is employed, it is well to heed findings in the theory of learning. Students may not be assumed to generalize from one experience and transfer their learning from one situation to a different situation. There is transfer to the degree that there is teaching for transfer. Learning how to learn may be an important by-product of learning a particular thing if time is taken to examine with the student how the learning has taken place, what resources have been used, how truth and accuracy have been checked, where one may go for further knowledge. If the matter has been presented as settled for all time, the spur to further learning has been blunted.

A second method in developing competence in self-education is one stressing process primarily. The method is a "problems" approach. Answers and solutions are not given, but students are helped to formulate the problem, to seek out sources of assistance, to check sources, to generalize, to test their generalizations, to recognize unresolved problems that remain. But "content" is necessary here, too. Application demands

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the reality of working on, of learning, *something*. Working on the process alone may deteriorate into a kind of dilettante activity and the process remain empty because no firsthand experience has been had in struggling to learn something. The approach, it seems, can be either deductive or inductive, but there must be an eventual focus on the continuing need "to strive, to seek, to find and not to yield" with Tennyson's Ulysses—and on the tools with which to do so.

Demands and Facilities for Continuing Education

Varied purposes are met through competence in the continuing self-educative process. These include vocational upgrading, improving the quality of social experience, "do it yourself" skills around the home, recreational outlets contributing to physical and emotional well-being, active participation in government, personal expression through creative arts, and simply the living of a richer life.

Facing these demands, educational agencies must make better use of mass media as one solution. This is the time when we should be experimenting with television in particular — educational channels, commercial channels devoting part of their time to the public interest, closed circuit programming—in order to establish meaningful, legitimate uses and methods which will help the individual continue his education. Radio, newspapers, periodicals represent usable media if in some way a meeting of minds can be developed among program directors and editors with an eye on circulation, consumers with an eye on their individual interests, and educators with an eye on using a given medium in such a way that it helps the consumer meet his educational goal.

Libraries, museums, settlement houses, Y's, religious and civic organizations maintain facilities and programs for adults to assist them in continuing self-development. These institutions have accumulated experience and understanding in working on informal programs of education. It is necessary to define the role of the community's tax-supported educational agencies in relation to these services. Are there personnel and facilities which schools and universities could place at the disposal of these other community agencies? Is there need for reappraisal and coordination? If so, do schools and colleges have a role to play, competencies to offer? Is it possible—is it desirable—to maintain the identity of autonomous units working on a coordinated program of continuing education? Should communities of appropriate size have adult education centers in which are marshaled the resources of these agencies?

That there should be so many different ways in which an adult may informally continue his learning is a good thing. If the school has done a good job in giving individuals the tools of learning, it is in this melange of formal programs and informal associations that the adult can sharpen and use his tools.

HOLLIS L. CASWELL

A Curriculum Viewpoint on Educational Television

A distinguished American educator surveys a controversial area and raises some penetrating questions.

ONE OF THE greatest potential influences on the curriculum and teaching in our schools and colleges is the use of educational television. It is believed by many people to hold the answer to two of our major problems, the teacher shortage and improvement in the quality of education. The means of solution appears quite simple: Have good teachers teach larger numbers of pupils through the use of television. Sometimes teacher support is sought for this plan by suggesting that under these conditions good teachers could be paid much higher salaries than at present.

Just how far various advocates would go in teaching increased numbers by television is not always made clear. However, it is apparent that a radical revision of the dominant conception and plan of teaching is involved in the thinking of many people. The ultimate logical extension of the idea is made by Hugo Gernsback, editor of *Radio-Electronics*, who holds that the same teacher can instruct 500,000 pupils or more simultaneously just as well as a customary sized group. He proposes a national closed circuit hookup, the operation of which he illustrates in the field of science as follows:

> From a central point or points the best technical and science teachers in the land would instruct via large wall projection color television in *all* classes in the land. If the instructor of the moment is at Yale, the rest of the country is connected to that point. The next lecture may come from MIT in Massachusetts, from Cal-Tech in California or from any other point *because all institutions of learning are tied in to the national teleducation closed-circuit hookup.*[1]

Richard B. Hull, director of radio and TV for Ohio State University is reported as stating to a conference of Educational Broadcasters: "The rough outlines of a national framework for radio and television education have now been sketched out . . ."[2] In a public school system which I visited last year the director of educational television expressed the opinion that it would be only a few years until all the teaching for their city would emanate from a central studio and classrooms would be monitored by non-professional aides who would keep order. Alexander J. Stoddard urges that general use of television would save a hundred thousand teachers in American schools.[3]

These proposals are very appealing to many hard-pressed administrators and Boards of Education and to citizens who

[1] "The Elements of Teleducation." *Radio-Electronics.* May 1956, p. 33.

[2] Reported by Jack Malby in "Television: Teaching's Newest Tool." *Saturday Review.* February 16, 1957, p. 31.

[3] *Schools for Tomorrow, An Educator's Blueprint.* New York: The Fund for the Advancement of Education, 1957.

find the tax bill for education onerous. It is not surprising consequently that in some communities Boards of Education, spurred by assertions that an immediate substantial saving can be made in the number of teachers required and the quality of education improved, have taken administrative action requiring schools to establish teaching by television and to reduce their teaching staffs. Something of a campaign has been carried on by some supporters of television to get Boards of Education to do this.

Is the Case for Television Proven?

Many supporters of educational television believe the case for its use is already proven and that the only thing that delays its widespread adoption is the unwillingness of educators to change to new practices. Charles A. Siepmann of New York University states:

> But the major obstacle to bringing education abreast of these electronic times is . . . the habitual and outworn patterns of thought, false fears among teachers that television will displace them, inflexible attitudes to the realities of education. The success of experimental educational television suggests that experimentation has gone far enough, that we are now ready for a rapid extension in the practical uses of television in the schools across our land.[4]

Educators generally should ask sincerely whether or not this conclusion is justified. If it is, they should bend their efforts to achieve the rapid adoption of television; if it is not, they should know why they question the conclusiveness of present results and exert their efforts to see that television is used in such fashion as not to jeopardize good instruction.

It is my belief that the desirable extent and nature of the use of television in instruction have not yet been adequately proven to warrant widespread adoption of particular plans. The main reasons for this belief are as follows:

1. The number of experiments which have been conducted on teaching by television is still relatively small. They are quite inadequate to provide conclusive evidence of the effectiveness of television under the widely varying conditions which prevail in our schools and colleges and in relation to various educational objectives.

2. Very few of the experiments have been rigorously structured so that they meet desirable standards of scientific research. A summary of research on television teaching by Hideya Kumata states that there has been a "tendency for research to be an afterthought to instructional television efforts. Except in a few studies, a true partnership between performance and evaluation does not exist."[5]

3. The powerful effect on motivation of doing something new has not been neutralized in the great majority of these studies. One of the amazing things about research on the curriculum and methods of teaching is the great extent to which experimental methods have proved superior to established ones. Yet many of these methods, supposedly proven superior, have dropped out of practice in the very situations in which the experiments were conducted. They just did not stand up under the test of time when the motivational force of doing something new was gone. This tendency toward success of new practices when carried on by people who believe in them can be neutralized either by trying control plans which also have new elements in them or by allowing sufficient time for the newness to wear off. At

[4] "The Case for TV in Education." *New York Times Magazine.* June 2, 1957, p. 47.

[5] *An Inventory of Instructional Television Research.* Ann Arbor, Michigan: Educational Television and Radio Center. December 1, 1956.

the present time it is impossible to tell to what extent the results of television teaching experiments are merely the effects of added motivation resulting from doing something different.

4. The experiments in television teaching have been evaluated in relation to limited educational objectives. Measurements have primarily been directed at two questions: How does the factual knowledge the student has gained compare with that gained through conventional teaching? How do students like television teaching compared with conventional? There are many additional highly important educational outcomes which should be tested before the desirable form and extent of teaching by television have been proven. For example, one of the desirable outcomes of science teaching at the undergraduate level is the discovery of exceptional talent for work in science and the stimulation of such students to become scientists. Studies have shown that a group of small liberal arts colleges have been exceptionally successful in doing this, even more successful than such institutions as M.I.T. and large universities with outstanding science departments like the University of California at Berkeley. One cannot but suspect that there is something in the close association of professor and student in the small liberal arts college which accounts for its excellence in this respect. Consequently, the question arises as to the probable influence of teaching science by television on the important objective of discovering young people with outstanding talent in science and interesting them in it as a life work. This is an objective which can only be tested over a fairly extended period of time.

It is generally agreed that a major concern of education should be to influence the behavior of students. There has been a continuing effort, especially in elementary and secondary schools, to interpret educational objectives in behavioral terms and to provide the kinds of learning experiences which achieve these objectives. This is a very different thing from focusing on the mastery of facts. It can be done with any degree of assurance only when the teacher is in position to observe the behavior of pupils. Since in teaching by television the teacher has no opportunity to observe the action of pupils, behavioral objectives are pretty largely eliminated as purposes for such teaching.

5. Appraisal of the effectiveness of television teaching has usually been made by comparison with the type of conventional teaching which is most like television teaching, that is, the lecture method. The largest number of studies have been made at the college level. Generally they have been of situations in which students are conventionally taught in large lecture sections in which they have little or no opportunity for questions and discussions and where emphasis is primarily on gaining command of facts. It is pretty well recognized that this pattern of teaching leaves a great deal to be desired and it is quite possible that teaching by television is just as good or even better, since the best lecturers can be used. But it does not follow that either is the best method of teaching, and it is quite possible that using television simply accentuates a present weakness in the conventional plan of instruction. Perhaps we should rather be moving in the direction of a wider variety of pupil activities—less listening

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and more discussion, less demonstration and more experimentation, less uniformity and greater adjustment to individual differences.

Importance of How Television Is Used

Television can, of course, be used in different ways and for different purposes. In general there are two broad categories of use. One is for teaching in which the central responsibility for a phase of the curriculum is carried by the television teacher, which I shall refer to as *direct teaching*. The other is for supplementing the work of regular classroom teachers who carry the responsibility for direct instruction. There are instances in which efforts are made to combine the two.

Current discussions of the use of television focus largely around the first type of use. It is only if direct teaching responsibility is taken by the television teacher that the number of teachers needed can be reduced, which is consistently stated by its advocates as a major advantage of the use of television.

The second type of use fits in with the common approach to audio-visual aids to instruction. There seems to be no reasonable question about the desirability of utilizing the resources of television in this way along with films and other types of aids.

The real question centers on the desirability of using television for direct teaching. Much has been written about the advantages to be derived from this form of use but little has been indicated as to its limitations. It is important that limitations be weighed against advantages. The principal limitations, when viewed from the perspective of qualities which make a good curriculum and effective teaching, as I see them, follow:

1. Only in highly specialized phases of the curriculum can a teacher teaching by television organize instruction around the interests and purposes of pupils. The relative importance which should be attached to the interests and purposes of pupils is a point upon which there have been wide differences of opinion. There is hardly anyone, however, who will deny that it is highly desirable to have pupils interested in what they are being taught, in fact, that what they learn is a direct reflection of the nature of their interest and purpose.

The determination and stimulation of pupil interests which provide appropriate bases for organizing good learning experiences is a difficult aspect of teaching. Ability to do this is one of the major points at which the artist teacher differs from the poor ones. Direct association with students is required in most teaching-learning situations to ascertain their interests, to determine how successful one is in stimulating new interests, and to build instruction on these interests.

The effectiveness of teaching by television would be greatly influenced by what the teacher may assume about the interest and purpose of the students. If, for example, a professor in a medical school is giving a course on new surgical techniques for experienced surgeons, he may assume a highly specialized and strong interest on the part of those who choose to take the course, along with a background of experience which would make exposition and demonstration highly meaningful. In such a teaching situation the instructor needs to be little concerned with the basic interest and central purpose of his students. He may well be able to teach by television with a high level of effectiveness.

But a teacher who is teaching arithmetic to elementary school children may safely make no assumption whatever about the degree of pupil interest and

purpose. In such a situation, discovery of interests that may be built on and stimulation of new interests are a major aspect of good teaching. It is difficult to see how this can be done in any fundamental fashion by television teaching.

It is my opinion that a major factor in determining when television may advantageously be used for direct teaching is the degree of specificity of the interest and purpose of the students. If these basic features of a good teaching-learning situation may safely be assumed to exist in the group to be instructed, a major barrier to good teaching by television is overcome; but if this is not the case, the direct contact of the teacher with pupils appears essential. This means that television may be more appropriate for dealing with elective, specialized aspects of the curriculum in which mature students are involved than with required general work and immature students.

2. The variety of pupil activities which can be directed by television is limited. It is largely restricted to listening and observing. Obviously, firsthand experiences in which teacher and pupils are involved together are impossible. A field trip in science cannot be taken, although a television view of a factory or power plant or other object of interest may be shown. Construction activities, laboratory experience, and other such firsthand activities in general cannot be guided into significant learning experiences by a television teacher.

Over the years one of the central concerns in curriculum improvement has been to get more firsthand experience in the curriculum. There has been a consistent effort to reduce the amount of listening in which pupils engage and to increase the amount of doing. Television teaching inevitably, I believe, operates in opposition to this goal. It is a natural instrument over which to talk at students and to show them. It is not a ready means for pupils to respond overtly or to make reports or to discuss or to be involved in projects.

Some advocates of television teaching indicate in their writing a limited conception of the activities that should be provided pupils in a good curriculum. Charles A. Siepmann states: ". . . television teaching, supplemented by a textbook, is actually sufficient to provide all necessary instruction."[6]

It is obvious that one's attitude toward television teaching will be directly influenced by how much importance is attached to providing a variety of pupil activities and firsthand experience. If you believe, as Mr. Siepmann does, that the desired outcomes of education can be achieved by having pupils listen to lectures, observe demonstrations, and study textbooks, television teaching will be entirely acceptable. But if you see these activities as entirely too limited to achieve the goals of education you are concerned about, if you believe pupils need to discuss, carry out projects, take excursions, do experiments, engage in construction activities and the like, television teaching suffers under a severe handicap.

3. Adjustment to individual differences among pupils is limited by television teaching. The essential basis of adjustment to individual differences is knowledge of the individual student—his abilities, his interests, his achievements and his difficulties. It is obvious that a teacher using television cannot know individual pupils. A coaxial cable, however short or long, effectively separates the teacher from knowledge of his students as individuals. From examinations,

[6] *Op. cit.*, p. 13.

papers, and written reports he may get some general ideas; but, if he is teaching large numbers, he must depend on readers and so is cut off from even this indirect connection with the students he teaches. A television teacher is forced to teach to what he conceives to be the most common needs of a group.

The one adjustment to individual differences which advocates of television teaching suggest is the time given to a course. They propose that if television lectures are placed on film, the lectures can be repeated as often as desired for learners of different abilities. This introduces another element in the situation: teaching by film. There has already been sufficient experience with this to demonstrate that films are fine supplementary aids to teaching but do not serve to make unnecessary direct teacher guidance of the learning situation.

A point sometimes made about television teaching is that its use frees the classroom teacher to give more attention to individual differences. This moves into the area of using television to supplement the work of classroom teachers, who continue to carry the central responsibility for their pupils. It seems evident that such use might be advantageous. But this will not save teachers, which is a principal argument for the widespread use of television. Already this type of supplementary aid is achieved by many good teachers through the use of films.

4. The stimulus of the personal interest of a teacher in a pupil's achievement is largely eliminated by television teaching. One of the great weaknesses of the usual lecture course is the fact that there is little opportunity for teachers to become acquainted with individual students and for the students to gain the motivational stimulation and guidance the personal interest of a teacher affords. Television teaching reduces this possibility almost to the vanishing point.

Often it is argued that television can extend the influence of great teachers from a few students to many hundreds or even thousands. What is overlooked is the extent to which teachers are great because of their direct, personal influence on students. Overwhelmingly, I have found that as people talk about teachers who have influenced them significantly, the teachers have taken a personal interest in them. It is rare indeed that teachers who have taught large lecture classes are cited by people as having exerted significant influence on them or as being among their outstanding teachers. In the overwhelming number of cases the teacher who is considered outstanding by students is the one who has established some kind of personal relationship with them, guiding them directly in learning situations. Consequently, taking teachers who have exerted great influence on students out of classrooms and putting them in television studios, far from extending their influence, may substantially reduce such influence.

5. Television teaching tends to fragment the curriculum and makes it largely impossible to relate teaching to the out-of-school experiences and interests of pupils. One of the qualities of a good curriculum is the extent to which the various aspects are interrelated. Every good elementary teacher knows, for example, that a highly important means of teaching spelling is to see that pupils spell correctly in the writing they do in all the various phases of their work. While general word lists may desirably be used for a check, good teachers keep a list based on the activities of each group of pupils and help each pupil

keep a check on his own spelling difficulties. Consequently, it is impossible in a modern curriculum to conceive of teaching spelling only as a separate subject unrelated to other aspects of the curriculum. Special practice in spelling is provided as needed, but it develops out of and feeds back into actual use of spelling in various parts of the curriculum. The amount of practice is adjusted to individual pupil needs. Some pupils with a high level of verbal aptitude need only a brief check-up each week; others with a low level will require frequent drill.

With a modern conception of teaching spelling it is inconceivable to attempt to teach it by television. Yet one entire school system has devoted a television experiment to teaching second grade spelling. The only possible outcome is to defunctionalize spelling and largely eliminate adjustments to individual differences.

Other aspects of the curriculum should be interrelated also for maximum effectiveness in learning. Teaching by television reduces the opportunity to do this in all fields.

As the concerns of students become more specific and as they choose particular courses because of these concerns, the interrelationship of various phases of the curriculum becomes less vital. The development of specific concerns occurs as the student becomes more mature and as he is able to see and to establish desirable interrelations among his activities independently. As students reach this stage of development, courses may be appropriately organized as separate and largely independent aspects of the curriculum; and they may then be taught with greater promise of success by television.

For example, while it seems quite impossible to establish the necessary and desirable interrelationships of arithmetic in the elementary school to other aspects of the curriculum to teach it well by television, when a student has reached the maturity to desire to learn trigonometry with its specialized subject-matter relationships and has established habits of independent study, it would be more appropriate to undertake to teach him by television. Even in this latter case it must be recognized that interest by the student in studying trigonometry will probably result in most cases from the interest and stimulation of a teacher and that when it is studied by television the opportunity to have difficulties resolved and to secure encouragement to get over the hard places is largely lacking.

A related factor of great importance is the significance that out-of-school experience and interest can give to learning. Much good teaching gets its setting from knowledge of what pupils do out of school, their recreational interests, and the community setting in which they live. Class projects which are most valuable often take their setting in some feature of community life—a problem, a service, or an aspect of history. Also, in dealing with learning difficulties it is a basic principle to find a major point of interest and activity of the student from which to start. A student who has difficulty in reading and who is interested in baseball will learn to read better by starting with baseball. In teaching by television it is largely impossible to relate teaching to out-of-school interests and activities of pupils. This is another important limitation which television places on good teaching.

The Argument of Expediency

When I have undertaken to discuss the limitations of teaching by television with some of its advocates—which incident-

ally is very difficult to do without being labeled an old fogy standing in the way of progress—the ultimate and to them conclusive argument is that something must be done to teach the flood of students that is descending on the schools and colleges. Obviously, this is quite a different issue than the one we have been discussing in this article, which centers on the relation of teaching by television to the quality of education.

So far as the schools are concerned, I am convinced that television advocates have tended to overplay the teacher shortage, using it as an expedient means of advancing the introduction of television. They ignore the fact that the level of preparation of teachers has been constantly improving, that fewer emergency permits are now being issued than previously and that the most authoritative estimate is that an adequate supply of fully prepared teachers can be available in less than ten years if present recruitment efforts are continued.

On the college level the situation may well be far more serious within the next ten years than it has been in the schools. In many institutions measures will undoubtedly have to be taken to get more students taught by given sized staffs. Television obviously will play a significant role in this situation. I would hope that the pressures of having to teach more students will not serve over the long run to extend and fix more firmly in the colleges a pattern of teaching which makes the mastery of facts the almost exclusive goal of college teaching and listening to lectures the dominant class activity of students. This is already too much the case.

Reduction in the number of courses offered, increase in plans of independent study, greater use of discussion groups and other means may desirably be extended in use. It may be predicted with confidence, I believe, that those higher institutions which maintain programs in which students have the opportunity for direct contact with their teachers will tend to get the more serious and abler students who are in position to make a choice among institutions.

It is my conclusion that greater promises are being made for television by many of its advocates than can be justified. Much of the experimentation which is referred to is no more than demonstration on a limited basis. Promises that the number of teachers needed to provide a good educational program can be greatly reduced overlook the broader picture of what is required to provide a good curriculum and effective teaching.

The method of advancing the use of television by convincing Boards of Education that they should take direct action requiring its use seems to me to be contrary to one of the most important things we have learned about the best ways of improving education. It has become increasingly clear over the years that the teachers who are responsible for putting into effect changes in the curriculum and in methods of teaching must have a major part in determining what the changes should be if they are to be beneficent and effective. The whole approach that is currently being made to get Boards of Education and administrators to legislate change is inconsistent with this experience.

Finally, if there is the possibility that television may be used to teach all pupils within a state or several states or the nation, we must appraise with care what the effects will be on our prized principle of local control of the curriculum. It is difficult, in terms of our tradition, to view with equanimity a situation in

which every pupil throughout a state or the nation in the tenth grade would be taught biology at precisely the same hour and in the same way; or where one professor of history would teach all college students in American History his particular interpretation of the causes of the Civil War. Such a condition would be comparable to that existing in the most centralized systems of education. Local control of the curriculum has been a great safeguard against any one point of view dominating the education of students, and it has provided a highly effective means of stimulating progress by combating uniformity and undesirable standardization. Television, as envisioned by some, could well erode this principle over the years, an outcome which I personally would view with apprehension.

It will be desirable, in my judgment, as we test the uses to which television may be put, to check persistently against the broader criterion of the kind of curriculum and teaching we wish in our schools and colleges. If some things have to be done for the sake of expediency under the pressure of numbers, let us at least recognize when we compromise with desirable standards of teaching and let us be sure that we are not sold an approach to teaching which will save dollars but will impoverish the educational opportunities of American children and youth.

(Continued from page 95)

population. By 1970, 75% more professional and technical personnel and 50% more white collar workers will be needed, according to Devereux Josephs, chairman of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School, quoting from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.[10]

It becomes apparent, then, that the scramble by employers for educated talent will become greater, rather than less, in the years ahead. "The intensified competition will extend even farther down the line in the years to come," John W. Gardner notes in his perceptive statement, "The Great Talent Hunt."[11]

[10] Devereux Josephs, "Conceptualize, Publicize, Synthesize." *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXVIII, No. 5 (February 1957), p. 173.

[11] John W. Gardner, "The Great Talent Hunt," *Annual Report, Carnegie Corporation of New York, 1956*, p. 21.

It is also quite probable, as various authorities have suggested, that the diversity of types of post-secondary education will continue to increase as both the number and the heterogeneity of students seeking further learning grow. Community colleges, technical institutes, adult education, short-term and part-time study plans, as well as greater use of educational television, will all be called upon to shoulder a substantial portion of the load.

While it is apparent that colleges and universities will expand within the limits of available funds and staff personnel, it will be a long time, if ever, before there are many vacant spaces in higher institutions. Under these circumstances, it is absolutely essential that the best wisdom and counsel be sought toward the logical and equitable solution to the constant enigma: Who should go to college?

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Contributor: Newton Hodgson

When we asked Newton Hodgson, *of Emory University, what in Education burns him up, he took Sunday off and came up with the following.*

Richard L. Henderson

Interview

Questioner: Good morning, Professor Bushmaster. May I have a few minutes of your time?

Professor B.: Yes, indeed. My larder is well-stocked, my house is in order and my ducks are, so to speak, in a row. You might say I am loaded for bear, not barely loaded. Ha! Ha!

Q.: You certainly seem in fine form. Now, what is the state of affairs in the educational world today?

Prof. B.: We are at a crossroads. It is a time of crisis. Ours is a complex society. We live in an era of rapid technological advance, of Social Change. The social sciences, unfortunately, have not kept pace with the physical sciences. Yet, there are promising practices and the atomic cloud may have a silver lining. Still, the struggle is for men's minds, and of course there is conflict.

Q.: What about conflict?

Prof B.: It rages. Occasionally it is rife.

Q.: And what does it rage over?

Pro. B.: Issues. Usually issues are significant. Sometimes they are pressing. Occasionally they are critical. These issues involve opposing, but perhaps not wholly irreconcilable points of view. One should, however, avoid eclecticism —especially if it is mere. Personally, I find myself faced by the forces of Reaction. They are ranged against me. In serried ranks.

Q.: And what about your opponents, Professor?

Prof. B.: They are well-meaning but misguided. They erect straw men. They are, naturally, worthy. But they tend to mix fact with fancy. They are confused. They distort. They inevitably quote me out of context. On occasion they argue *ad hominem* and they frequently extrapolate beyond any observable trend in the data. Their conclusions are usually not warranted. In a fit of pique, I might refer to them as unmitigated.

Q.: You are certainly, to venture a phrase, in rare fettle today, Professor. Tell me, how would you describe yourself?

Prof. B.: I am not ashamed of the venerable title of pedagogue. I am a member of the happy profession, one of those dedicated, underpaid souls whose commitment and devotion to my task . . .

Q.: I see. And would you say you were progressive or traditional?

Prof. B.: I like to think of myself as progressive—with a small "p." Recently, though, I have begun to combine the best elements of both. There is something to be said on both sides. Fashions in educational thought come and go.

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One man's meat is another man's poison. *Sic transit gloria mundi.* Be not the first by whom the new is tried, nor yet the last to . . .

Q.: I think we're getting a little off the subject. Would you care to comment about what you teach?

Prof. B.: Certainly. I teach children, not subjects. I teach the whole child. I am concerned with the emotional as well as the physical and intellectual aspects of his experience. Excuse me, I meant to say experiencing.

Q.: Experienc*ing*?

Prof. B.: Of course. We should not forget the importance of process values. It is always helpful to add an "ing" or a "ness" as in "selfness." Sometimes we can do both, as in "belongingness." Which reminds me—*as* a cigarette should.

Q.: You have me a little confused, Professor—but impressed. Tell me, what aspects of experiencing do you teach to the selfness of the whole child?

Prof. B.: (Somewhat impatiently) I have already stated clearly, indeed succinctly, my concern with process rather than product, with means rather than ends, with the pathway rather than the goal. I will go further and point out that we foster desirable attitudes and cultivate critical thinking.

Q.: But what do you teach them to think about?

Prof. B.: Problems, of course. Real Life or Persistent.

Q.: And do these problems have both a personal and a social reference?

Prof. B.: You are thinking of needs. Needs always have both a personal and a social reference. Sometimes they are emotional; sometimes imperative. Occasionally, they are psycho-socio-anthropobiological. I have even heard them referred to as societal. Whatever they may be, we endeavor to meet them.

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Q.: Do you teach anything else?

Prof. B.: Well, we assist children and youth in the accomplishment of their developmental tasks.

Q.: And do they thereby become task-oriented?

Prof. B.: An admirable phrase! Of course they do. They also interact. With their environment, that is, and interpersonally. In this way they acquire mental health learnings.

Q.: That last word seems an unusual use of an "ing," a sort of pluralized gerund.

Prof. B.: Oh, yes. It's quite a favorite of mine. If I were permitted to coin a phrase, I might say that children acquire learnings by their doings.

Q.: Say, that's pretty good! Tell me, Professor, do you like your students?

Prof. B.: Well, I wouldn't put it quite that way. I would say, rather, that we have a healthy, supportive pupil-teacher relationship. Our rapport is good. Naturally, however, there are individual differences.

Q.: And what do you do about individual differences?

Prof. B.: I take them into account. I allow or provide for them. When I am feeling democratic, I value them. When I have forty children in my room, I become intensely aware of the problems posed by the fact of them.

Q.: I see. By the way, what is your feeling about the I.Q. score?

Prof. B.: I do not set too much store by it. In the past, I have tended to overemphasize it. I am moving away from too much dependence on it. Especially when it is alone. As I think I have pointed out before, I try to consider the whole child, his needs and interests, his personality structure, his growth patterns, his family background, his relationships with his peer group, his occupational concerns, his probable life direction, etc., etc. In short, I try to put his individual behavior into relationship with his entire psycho-social matrix.

Q.: Matrix?

Prof. B.: Certainly. Or context, if you prefer. Cultural context.

Q.: Oh. And to what end do you consider the whole child in his matrix?

Prof. B.: I'm glad you asked me that. My aim is to foster the optimal development of the child. Also to realize his fullest potential. And furthermore, to develop his capacities to the maximum.

Q.: Thank you, Professor. That clarifies everything. Before you leave, though, tell me where you are going from here?

Prof. B.: To a meeting. A meeting of forward-looking educators.

Q.: And how would you characterize this meeting?

Prof. B.: It will certainly have involved cooperative planning by all concerned. Quite possibly it will be interdisciplinary. (Reflectively and a little nostalgically.) It probably won't be intercultural; that's sort of old hat. But it will assuredly have groups into which we will break up, as you might say.

Q.: Sounds like an unusual affair. Thanks again, Professor, and good luck.

—Newton Hodgson, *acting director, Agnes Scott-Emory Teacher Education Program, Emory University, Georgia.*

Curriculum Research

Column Editor: Alexander Frazier
Contributors: George A. Beauchamp
and Claude Mathis

Learning and the Learner

THE PURPOSE of the present article, in harmony with the current series for this column, is to examine the implications of some of the ideas brought forth by research in the field of psychology of learning. It is not intended to be a review of research but rather an interpretation of ideas that may have a bearing upon classroom practice and curriculum research.

Implications for Classroom Practice

The psychological laboratory continues to accumulate data relative to rewards and punishment as these affect the learner and the process of learning. Some of these have implications for what we might do with the learner in the classroom that is different from ordinary practice. For example, the latent learning experiments tend to contradict the Thorndike theory of learning, especially the law of effect, which assumes that reward and/or reinforcement are necessary conditions for learning to take place. It seems as though animals do learn even when it is not immediately evident in their performance, and they seem to learn whether they are rewarded or not. Much of the research in human learning has centered around testing the law of effect, especially the relationship between learning and reward, reinforcement, or need reduction. The latent learning experiments strongly suggest that rewards, incentives, and motivations in learning might not be as crucially important in the learning process as has been assumed. Many questions relative to this problem need to be attacked at the human level. For example, research data need to be obtained to find out whether grades are need-reducing. If they are necessary for certain types of performance, what are these types? When does the teacher need to motivate and reward actively, and when does he need to leave the student alone? The whole problem of motivation and reward as it applies to human learning needs to be examined in detail through adequately controlled and properly executed research.

Several interesting observations are being made relative to the effect of punishment. Much research has been done on the relationship between learning and rewards, but not nearly enough has been done relative to learning and punishment. For example, the idea that behavior really is not eliminated until it is brought to free expression where it can be redirected is a contradiction of the idea that punishment can eliminate undesirable behavior. Sometimes punishment can do more damage than good by causing the organism to repress behavior rather than express it for purposes of redirection. Furthermore, for some persons punishment is a reward as in the case of the child being punished for aggressive behavior and who accepts the punishment as a reward because it attracts attention to him. Interestingly enough

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the experimental literature on the effects of punishment in human learning is almost nonexistent. The ethical problems in doing research of this type are very apparent. However, some attack needs to be made on the problem, if only for the reason that our society accepts punishment as one way of rehabilitating certain deviant individuals in our society. The rehabilitation process is successful only in terms of the amount of relearning involved. Perhaps punishment can be successfully used in certain instances. Witness the apparent success with which alcoholism has been treated by use of a drug that causes a violent nausea when reacting with alcohol. Every time a patient who has taken the drug is exposed to alcohol he becomes quite sick. This type of punishment certainly causes the patient to avoid the pain-producing stimulus. This "negative" type of avoidance learning might be investigated as one possibility for teaching certain types of "control" behaviors in the school system.

Some of the research being conducted by H. F. Harlow of the University of Wisconsin with primates is generating ideas that merit consideration in human learning. For example, one idea is that curiosity may be classified and treated as an instinct. We have assumed for some time that curiosity was an almost native characteristic of children, but we have not established by our observations of children the precise nature of the curiosity in patterns or levels at different ages. The classroom could be an almost perfect observational laboratory to collect data for this type of study. Harlow and his associates also have been examining patterns of discrimination learning in primates in an endeavor to identify levels of discrimination in accordance with age and experience of his subjects. Many questions are being raised relative to the learner and his past experience in dealing with discrimination learning. This again is a kind of research that has not been systematically applied to human beings in the school environment.

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Content and Organization of the Curriculum

Another group of ideas that continue to be examined in the psychological laboratory have implications for research on the content and organization of the school curriculum. As one example, controversy exists between continuity and non-continuity theories of discrimination learning. Continuity theory attempts to account for present learning in terms of past associative learnings. Non-continuity theory tends to accentuate breaks in learning as the learner shifts from one mode of behavior to another. While both theoretical approaches accept the role of

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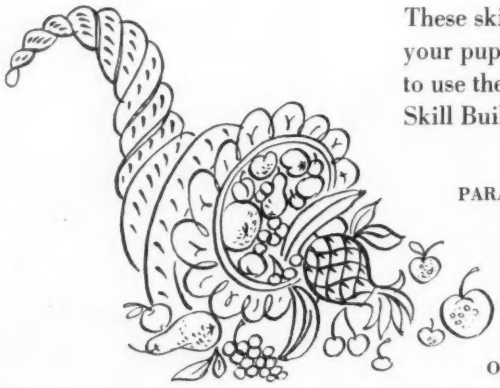

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prior experience in learning, the non-continuity theorists tend to de-emphasize prior experience. Many problems relative to human learning emerge from these theoretical distinctions. What is the relationship between past experience and present performance? Do human beings learn to discriminate randomly in a trial and error or associationistic fashion, or do they tend to make hypotheses as the learning process unfolds? If the non-continuity theory holds true for humans, then past experience should not be as important a variable in learning as certain theorists would have us believe. Perhaps a set of basic experiences would be all the past involvement necessary for the determination of insight and hypothesis testing in learning. If learning is too directed, the learner learns to depend on that direction. A person not only learns a performance; he learns a way of learning a performance. Perhaps the orientation of our school systems around a theory of learning which emphasizes rewards and the continuity of past experience is a result of the fact that we teach students to learn in a dependent manner, that is, dependent upon the reward and guidance of the teacher. This problem, of course, is intimately associated with the problem of learning to learn. It is apparent that the implications of this controversy for the content of the school curriculum, especially one that is organized in a logical and sequential manner, are very great.

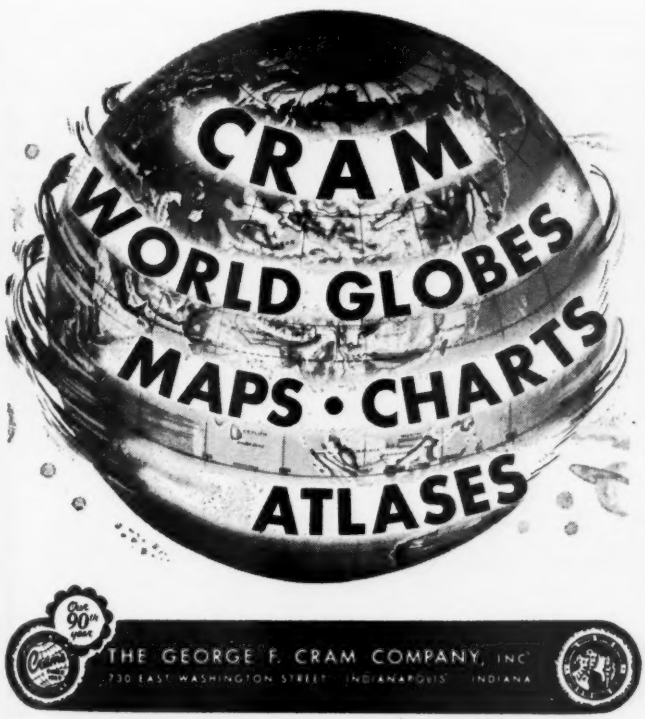
Another very interesting idea is discussed as the Zeigarnik Effect. Research has shown that tasks which are interrupted are remembered more readily than tasks which are brought to completion. Completing the "Gestalt" or seeking closure at the end of a learning situation may not be desirable if the learning process is to continue, say on the next

day or during the forthcoming week. If this is true, perhaps we are in error in culminating our learning activities in the classroom too often and too completely. Perhaps motivation for continuation of learning may be arrested because of concluding practices in classrooms.

We have already mentioned some of the ideas that are being examined in relationship to discrimination learning and patterns of curiosity. Some of the research indicates that when discrimination learning is forced upon the learner too early and in overly complex patterns the learner's curiosity tends to be dulled. This has dynamic implications for what we might do, particularly in elementary schools. If, for example, in the field of arithmetic we tend to present children with discrimination patterns that are too complex and abstract for them too early, we may seriously dull their curiosity for the study of arithmetic. The same could be said of a number of subjects. This is one area that needs serious consideration in research in human learning and curriculum.

Finally, research continues to accumulate data providing us with further information about individual differences. Some of the challenging work that is being done with culture free intelligence tests in examining some of our previous conclusions about intelligence among races and socioeconomic classes may have tremendous impact upon the school curriculum. If we can accept the notion that the school curriculum is an agency of cultural transmission, then it behooves us to become aware of variations in cultural deficiency that affect the performance of individuals who attend our schools.

—George A. Beauchamp *and* Claude Mathis, *School of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.*



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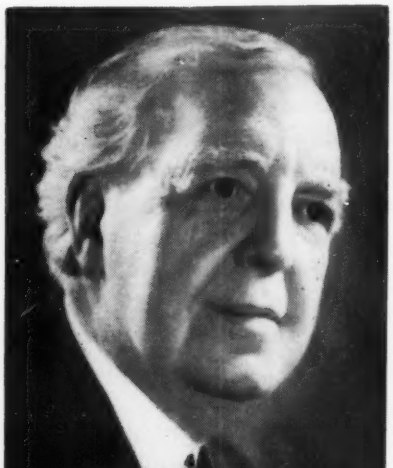
1867  1957

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Curriculum Bulletins

Column Editor: A. Harry Passow
Associate Professor of Education
Teachers College, Columbia University
New York 27, N. Y.

NOTE: The following faculty members of Teachers College, Columbia University, assisted in the preparation of this column by evaluating the materials in their areas of specialization: Professors PAUL E. EISERER (psychology and mental health), WILLARD J. JACOBSON (science), MANSON VAN B. JENNINGS (social studies), RAYMOND A. PATOUILLET (guidance), MYRON F. ROSSKOPF (mathematics), and FRANCIS SHOEMAKER (English).

• Arlington County Public Schools. *Elementary Arithmetic Guide, Grades One through Six.* Arlington, Va.: the Schools, 1956. 165 p.

This guide represents the combined efforts of a county-wide committee to provide specific and practical help for teachers. Using responses received from an invitation for teachers to list the difficulties children experienced, the problems met in teaching, and the methods and materials found particularly helpful in arithmetic instruction, the group prepared a tentative guide which was tested for a two-year period. Teachers were then asked to evaluate the guide and many did so in total staff or grade level meetings. Numerous modifications and additions were made on the basis of a detailed analysis of the evaluation forms.

Introductory material includes a statement of philosophy, a listing of principles of teaching arithmetic, and suggestions for using the publication. The guide itself is divided into major topics in order to emphasize the sequence of abilities within each area. In addition to the developmental program and summaries of abilities stressed at each grade level, a wealth of suggested activities are provided. A section with enrichment activities is included. The bibliography lists publications, films and filmstrips. A nine-page index is helpful for locating topics readily. The guide should provide a useful supplement to textbooks and the classroom teacher should be better informed and more effective for having studied its contents.

• Illinois Curriculum Program—Aviation Education Project. *English Teaching Aids for a Stronger America* by Virginia Casey. 98 p. *Mathematics Teaching Aids for a Stronger America* by Jack C. Merwin. 75 p. *Science Teaching Aids for a Stronger America* by Emery G. Fritsch. 92 p. Washington, D. C.: National Aviation Education Council, 1956.

These three publications are part of the "Our World of Flight Series," consisting of comprehensive resource units "to which secondary school teachers may turn for information about instructional aids for aviation education." They appeared first as Illinois Curriculum Program bulletins and have now been reprinted by the National Aviation Council as a service of its Materials Instruction Committee. Each publication was prepared by an Illinois high school teacher specializing in some area and assisted by colleagues representing that specialty in the state-wide association.

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tions of air transportation and translating them into appropriate learning experiences." Specific objectives are elaborated to help teachers develop a relation between their presentation of English, mathematics or science and aviation. *English Teaching Aids* is organized into two divisions. The first presents an historical approach to the development of aviation; the second proposes opportunities for students to enjoy literature of various kinds and to write about their own observations and reactions to aviation experiences. *Mathematics Teaching Aids* has two major parts also. Part I gives examples of how to apply aviation materials in teaching nine selected mathematics topics. The second part presents three illustrative study guides (Mathematics and Aeronautics, Mathematics and Aerial Navigation, and Mathematics and the Consumer of Aviation Goods and Services). In *Science Teaching Aids,* valuable suggestions are contained as to how the aviation dimension can be developed for such areas of science study as conservation, weather, internal combustion engines, life functions, fuels, machines, gravitation, electricity, electronics.

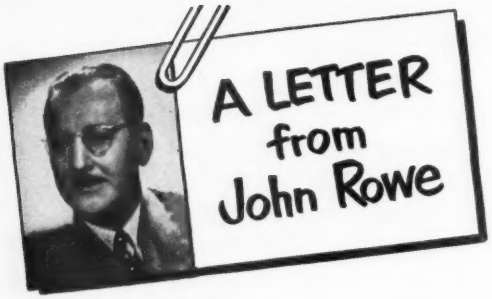
All three publications are equipped with extensive listings of useful teaching aids including books, articles, filmstrips, sources of free and inexpensive materials. Teachers in each of these areas can choose with ease numerous resources to "assist them in providing learning experiences from our world of flight for the youth in their classes."

• Leonard S. Kenworthy. *Studying Africa in Elementary and Secondary Schools.* 29 p. *Studying Asia in Elementary Schools.* 22 p. *Studying the Middle East in Elementary Schools.* 10 p. Brooklyn, N. Y.: World Affairs Materials, Brooklyn College, 1957.

Teachers concerned with helping children and youth in understanding the place of the U.S.A. in the international community have frequently found textbook material dated, inaccurate and parochial in point of view. Not only have the units on other lands suffered as a consequence, but students sometimes have emerged with stereotypes which block their insights about peoples whose good will vitally affects the welfare of the U.S.A. and the world at large.

The Brooklyn College group furnishes a clearinghouse for selected books on teaching world affairs and international understanding. Its World Affairs Materials, designed for teachers, may counteract these textbook shortcomings. They consist of a number of guides, resource units, background papers and bibliographies, and filmstrips. The guide to studying Africa begins by listing points to stress and background materials plus a selected bibliography. Resources are indicated for studying Africa, along with possible aims, experiences and activities for learners. The resources are grouped as those dealing with Africa generally and those focusing on parts of the continent. The other two resource guides follow essentially the same pattern as those mentioned above.

The wealth of resources of various kinds for both teachers and students at elementary and secondary school levels displayed in these publications reemphasizes that there is no dearth of teaching materials but only of occasion for using them. Other materials available include secondary school resource units on China, India, Japan, the Middle East, and Southeast Asia and background papers and bibliographies on Ceylon, Indonesia, Pakistan, and Puerto Rico. Teachers should welcome World Affairs Materials as channels for finding ma-



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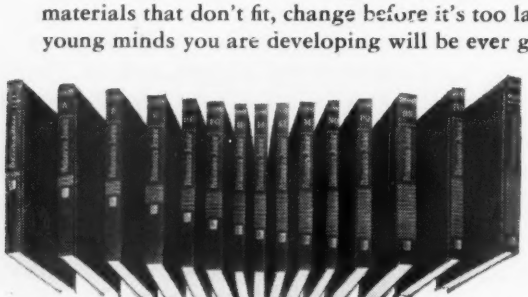

Sincerely,

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Educational Director

terials to deepen their own insights and understandings while, at the same time, they serve their students.

• The Board of Education of the City of New York. *Guidance of Children in Elementary Schools.* Curriculum Bulletin 1955-56 Series, Number 13. New York: the Board, 1956. 271 p.

This is a well conceived manual which sets forth basic guidance principles, describes techniques particularly appropriate at the elementary school level, and defines the role of teachers, guidance specialists and administrators for developing and administrating the guidance program. Essential concepts underlying an elementary school guidance program are presented as a basis for understanding the aims of such a program: "to promote the study of the child with the hope of preventing personality maladjustments and enhancing learning ability."

The scope and nature of the activities of staff members are discussed and the specific roles of teachers, administrators and guidance counselors are well defined. The role of the psychologist is seen only indirectly as one encounters situations requiring therapy or clinical attention. Depending upon the reader's familiarity with the guidance field, the relationship of the psychologist to the other members of the guidance team may appear unclear. However, this is a minor flaw in an otherwise excellent manual. The second part, wherein guidance techniques are presented, is particularly well done. The techniques are clearly discussed and well illustrated. The last few chapters are concerned with dramatics, play, puppetry, and art as guidance methods which teachers can utilize. As is pointed out clearly, "No teacher is expected to be a psychiatrist, nor is she expected to find time to provide unlimited assistance to each of her children. . . With the aid of clearly defined techniques, she is, however, in a position to help more children more effectively."

(Continued from page 90)

maintained only within a matrix of liberties: freedom to introduce experimental concepts in curriculum, freedom to submit new courses to the market place of faculty opinion, freedom to question, to dissent, and to evaluate.

An essential characteristic of any useful social institution is that it must, perhaps unwittingly and haphazardly, cater to some basic social need. Not infrequently in the past, colleges, as long as they satisfied some of the basic cultural needs, were not greatly concerned that other needs lagged or were neglected entirely. But modern society today with all its costs and complexities cannot condone any longer the luxury of cut-and-try in higher education. If tax-supported colleges are to meet the challenge ahead the old approach must be quickened by self-conscious adaptations and scientific studies to anticipate the needs of a community. New courses and disciplines ought to be examined and organized. New ideas and techniques must be explored. New relationships with institutions such as clinics and hospitals must be established. Finally, every area of curriculum must be under constant evaluation and reappraisal if we are to accommodate, without sacrifice of quality, the swelling numbers and gigantic enrollments bearing down upon us.

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Curriculum News

Column Editor: Robert S. Harnack
School of Education
University of Buffalo
Buffalo, New York

• The San Diego city school system is planning a major reorganization for curriculum development. In the past, responsibility for curricular progress has been in the hands of subject area steering committees. In the plan for reorganization, curriculum development is to be the responsibility of grade level planning committees. For many years the steering committees have carried out these responsibilities very effectively. In the revised plan for system-wide curriculum development, six curriculum planning committees will have responsibility for making recommendations for curricular change. These grade level groups will take over the curriculum development responsibilities which have previously been carried by the subject area steering committee. Many problems had been cropping up that could not be solved by these subject area steering committees. Who, for instance, had the responsibility for programs in health, safety, and moral and spiritual education? These needs cut across subject area lines and are too often ignored. Another problem is that of maintaining proper balance between required and elective subjects. Each subject area steering committee tended to become a pressure group for more of its particular product. Seemingly it became more and more difficult for people aligned on the basis of subject areas to consider all the needs of youth which, again, cut boldly across subject fields. Under the new program curriculum development can now occur on a broad front with the subject areas providing vertical continuity but with chief consideration being given to a balanced program at each grade level.

• Over 125 Arlington, Massachusetts, teachers and supervisory personnel have been participating in Mental Health Workshops during the past school year. These are sponsored by the Massachusetts Mental Health Association. Elementary and junior high school teachers took part in workshops during the first semester, while other junior and senior high school teachers participated during the second semester. Topics covered were: acceptance of other people's opinions and attitudes, the value of self-analysis, the importance of the impression a teacher makes on a pupil's life, and the causes of various behavior patterns. Also stressed during discussions was the climate of the classroom as pupils progress through different phases of growth and development.

• A report from the standing Committee on Applications of Mathematics, Division of Mathematics of the National Research Council, indicates that its major concern has been with the growing demands for mathematicians in government and industry, and the insufficient numbers of students being prepared to meet these demands. This problem was attacked at the high school level, and the following project was proposed: The committee felt that while many factors contribute to repel even superior students from courses in mathematics, one important factor is lack of information

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Dept. EL, 612 N. Park St., Columbus, Ohio

about the careers open to mathematicians, and scant and often distorted conceptions of mathematicians and their activities. Therefore, the committee decided that a contribution toward making mathematics interesting to students might be one of attempting to make mathematicians interesting. It seemed that this could be done best by presenting sketches, or profiles, of real, live mathematicians. Since the profiles are for high school students, the mathematicians chosen should be not too old, should be interesting and engaged in interesting work, and should be outstanding. Further, there should be women as well as men. It is hoped that eventually these profiles will be assembled and printed in a little brochure, to be made available at no cost to high school students, as well as to their teachers and counselors.

• Curriculum planners recognize a need for studying present social conditions and foreseeable plans. (The threat of a "Saber-Toothed Curriculum" is ever present.) Readers interested in this area may find the following excerpt significant. It is from the National Planning Association's Joint Statement on metropolitan areas printed in the February 1957 issue of *Looking Ahead:* "The urban centers of the United States are becoming obsolete in many ways. Traffic strangulation; spreading slums; bankrupt mass transportation systems; inadequate schools, parks, hospitals, water supplies and sewers; air pollution; the flight to the unprepared suburbs; and aggravated social frictions are symptoms of a developing situation of dramatic seriousness to the welfare of the American people. The situation calls urgently for vigorous action, action which can be based only on new lines of metropolitan planning, jointly undertaken by government, business, labor, and the urban and

suburban populations. If Americans continue to stumble into future developments in and around the rapidly expanding metropolitan areas on the basis of thousands of separate and unrelated private development schemes and local plans, and if they deal separately with highways, with schools, with housing, and with hospitals, they are likely to misdirect their efforts and waste their time and resources. And what happens to the future requirement for open spaces and recreation, or any other need which happens not to be powerfully represented by an interest group at a given moment of decision?"

• Many local schools include preschool institutes as part of their systematic curriculum planning program. Some schools use post-school workshops. Others have institutes throughout the school year. All these institutes vary in length. Cincinnati, for example, completed (August 27-30) a three-day preschool meeting—the eleventh annual teachers' institute. As in former institutes, wide opportunity for professional growth was offered in 36 work-study conferences relating to various problems in the teaching fields and at various levels. For the sixth year the institute in 1957 continues the common problems approach for the junior and senior high school teachers based on the enrichment of the school curriculum for all children. Many facets must be considered in preplanning such an institute. Consideration must be given to consultants, assemblies, institute location, work-study sessions, granting of credit, orientation programs, luncheon schedule, visual-auditory aids, enrollment forms, and work-study groups. Planning committees in local school systems, formed now, would have much to work on to get ready for the preschool institute.

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Significant Books in Review

Column Editor: George W. Denemark
Contributor: Charles Manning

Higher Education in a Decade of Decision. *By the Educational Policies Commission.* *Washington, D. C.: National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, 1957.*

This report by the Educational Policies Commission has obviously been prepared with great care. Behind it must lie many discussions and meetings, much writing and rewriting of the report itself. That the language of the final report is at most points firm and clear is evidence that the work has been carried through all its stages with close attention and vigor.

In American educational thinking it is characteristically the student who is taken as the prime given fact and not the educational discipline or the existing educational institution. The practical question for the future then becomes not who *should* go to college but who *will*, and the question is so phrased as a chapter heading in this report: "Who Will Go to College?" Questions of curriculum, methods of instruction, problems of private, state and federal financing (all of which are carefully considered) depend upon the ultimate answer to the initial question.

The specific recommendations of the Commission regarding admission, however, seem wisely conceived, both for the prospective student and for the institution. The individual institution should "limit and clarify its own role in the total enterprise and admit students in terms of that role." While higher education should be made available to all young persons who can profit by it, no one institution should attempt to be an all-purpose organization. Admission should be active rather than passive on the part of both the institution and the prospective student. The institution should seek the particularly gifted. The college and high school should share the responsibility of adequately informing the prospective student of the nature of higher education so that the young person himself may decide whether college training is appropriate for him. As we all know, the student who is "self-selected" has a far greater chance of success in college. The Commission warns against the creation of numerous poorly equipped and poorly staffed local colleges to accommodate the pressure of students seeking additional education and urges that the problem of ensuring adequate opportunities be approached on a regional basis.

The report states with skill the various issues involved in faculty recruitment, the maintenance and development of basic research in the universities, the need for greater articulation of high school and college, the many problems of building and financing. In a brief review one can comment only on selected topics. Because the report makes liberal and general education the distinguishing characteristic of higher education, it seems appropriate to take special note of its findings in this area.

The Commission favors the diversity of general education programs which have been developed from the many dif-

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Thomas M. Risk, *University of South Dakota*

Completely rewritten to bring the content up to date and to achieve greater clarity of expression and of organization, this well-known text now gives an objective, comprehensive picture of secondary education as it is today. The number of units into which the material is divided has been reduced from five to four to make the book more adaptable to the needs of courses in methods of teaching in high school and teacher training. Many explanations have been simplified, and new data, illustrations, and diagrams have been added. The end-of-chapter study suggestions have been revised to reflect the changes in the text material, and many new reading references have been supplied.

Check List of Texts for Second-Semester Courses

Foundations of Reading Instruction
With Emphasis on Differentiated Guidance
1957 Copyright
Emmett Albert Betts, *Director*
Betts Reading Clinic, Haverford, Pennsylvania

A Sociology of Education
Wilbur B. Brookover
Michigan Sate University

Education in the Elementary School
Third Edition • 1957
Hollis L. Caswell
Teachers College, Columbia University
Arthur W. Foshay, *The Ohio State University*

Human Development and Learning
Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow
Brooklyn College

Elementary School Administration and Supervision
Second Edition • 1958
Willard S. Elsbree and Harold J. McNally
Teachers College, Columbia University

Education in the Kindergarten
Second Edition
The late Josephine C. Foster
University of Minnesota
Neith E. Headley, *University of Minnesota*

History of Educational Thought
Robert Ulich, *Harvard University*

Evaluation in Modern Education
J. Wayne Wrightstone and Joseph Justman
Bureau of Educational Research, Board of Education of the City of New York
Irving Robbins
Queens College

COLLEGE DIVISION
55 Fifth Avenue, New York 3, New York
American Book Company

ferent experiments in American colleges, yet seems to feel that these programs are frequently not rigorously evaluated "in terms of qualities and competences within an individual." The report insists that the first step in setting up programs of higher education is to identify the characteristics of the liberally educated person. While this procedure seems the obvious one to the person trained in the behavioral sciences, it goes against the grain of the person who has lived for years with the humanities. True, the courtesy books of the Renaissance attempted to define the ideal gentleman, and Walt Whitman set himself the task of delineating the ideal democratic personality, though he proceeded by "hints and indirections" rather than by a scientifically compiled check list of traits. The humanist, however, has sat through the committee meetings devoted to the compiling of the desirable traits and has more confidence in the vitality of the liberal tradition, when exemplified by the able teacher, than in the list of virtues abstracted from the living subject matter.

The final recommendation concerning general education is misleading when taken out of the context of the whole discussion of general education. It asserts that "the programs of general and liberal education . . . should be focused more directly on the personal qualities and competences required of men and women in the contemporary world." It would now seem that we are not working to develop the liberally educated person but rather to train individuals to meet requirements imposed by a social and political environment. From the emphasis upon the word contemporary one assumes that this world represents a real discontinuity in human experience. A particular objective of liberal education, however, has been to make the individual less a prisoner of his immediate "contemporary" environment. Again the humanist has more confidence in the ability of the tradition to adapt itself organically and is skeptical of the new chemical synthesis suggested by the language of the final recommendation.

The general tenor of the report, however, supports the full human development of the individual who is capable of profiting by liberal education. It suggests that the abler student be allowed to proceed more rapidly and be encouraged to give himself more of his education through independent study. At every point the report calls for re-examination of all procedures which have become lockstep in effect.

—*Reviewed by* CHARLES MANNING, *assistant dean, College of Arts and Sciences, University of Maryland, College Park.*

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From the Editor

An invitation to you. In May 1958 the journal will focus on "Experiences in Cultural Integration." A main feature of this issue will be a series reporting such experiences. If you are, or have been, a participant or observer in such experiences *you can help us* write this issue. Your brief (300 words or less) statement, on one of the following topics, mailed by January 15 to the Editor of EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP will help make the May issue an effective and positive contribution in a most critical area. A general list of contributors of statements will be given, but there will be no labeling of any contribution, either as to name or place.

"Series of Experiences in Cultural Integration"

1. Members of minority groups speak:
   a. How I prepared for joining a new staff or a newly integrated staff
   b. How I was received—helps and hurts
   c. If I or we could do it over.
2. Members of a majority group speak:
   a. How I or we prepared to receive a "different" teacher or teachers on our staff
   b. How I or we tried to help
   c. If I or we could do it over.
3. Supervisors and administrators speak:
   Successful and unsuccessful practices in introducing the "different" teacher to school and community or in integrating segregated schools.
4. Any one:
   a. How I or we have helped children and youth to meet problems of cultural integration.
   b. Curriculum planning as schools are integrated.

Manuscripts on hand. Now nearing production is final copy of "Developing a Continuous Program for Learning," the 1958 ASCD Yearbook.

Also on hand are the manuscripts, "Curriculum and the Elementary School Plant," by Helen Heffernan and Charles Bursch; and "Foreign Language Teaching in the Elementary School," by Elizabeth Thompson and Arthur Hamalainen.

You were represented. Members of the ASCD Executive Committee and of the Washington staff this summer participated in several meetings with ASCD groups: Connecticut ASCD (ROBERT LEEPER); New England ASCD Conference (ARTHUR W. FOSHAY, MARGARET GILL, RODNEY TILLMAN); Arkansas ASCD Institute (ROBERT GILCHRIST, MARGARET GILL); Ohio ASCD (RODNEY TILLMAN); Region XI ASCD Meeting, Lawrence, Kansas (ARTHUR W. FOSHAY, RODNEY TILLMAN, ROBERT GILCHRIST).

Visitors to the office. Among visitors to the headquarters office in recent weeks are these: MARGARET AMMONS, GLENN BARNETT, CLIFFORD BLACKBURN, ANN CORNING, RALPH and ELLEN DIGNEO, LILLIAN TIBBELS FAULK, CLARK GILL, FLORINE HARDING, JANET HARRIS, J. H. HODGES, LEONARD KENWORTHY, GEORGE MILLER, BERNICE MILBURN MOORE, WARREN NELSON, PHILIP PERDEW, MARGARET WOODS.

Editorial workshop. First annual workshop of the Educational Press Association of America convened in Washington, D. C., July 7. Your journal was represented by RUTH ELY and SUZANNE BUCKLER who report a very worthwhile and informative three-day workshop.

—ROBERT R. LEEPER, *editor*, EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP.

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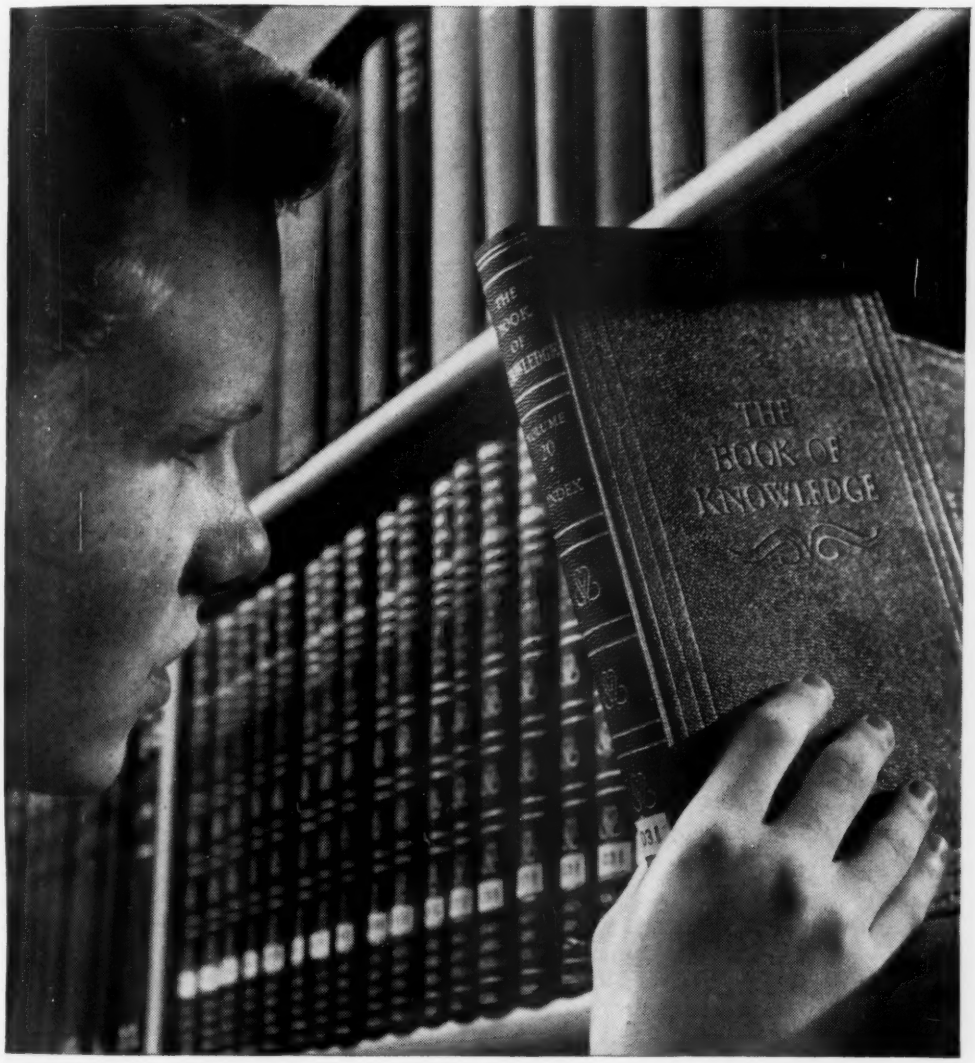

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